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GRAMMAR

OF

THE ENGLISH SENTENCE

BY

JONATHAN RIGDON

"Mend your speech a little, lest you mar your fortune"

— KING LEAR

HINDS, NOBLE & ELDREDGE

NEW YORK PHILADÉLPHIA

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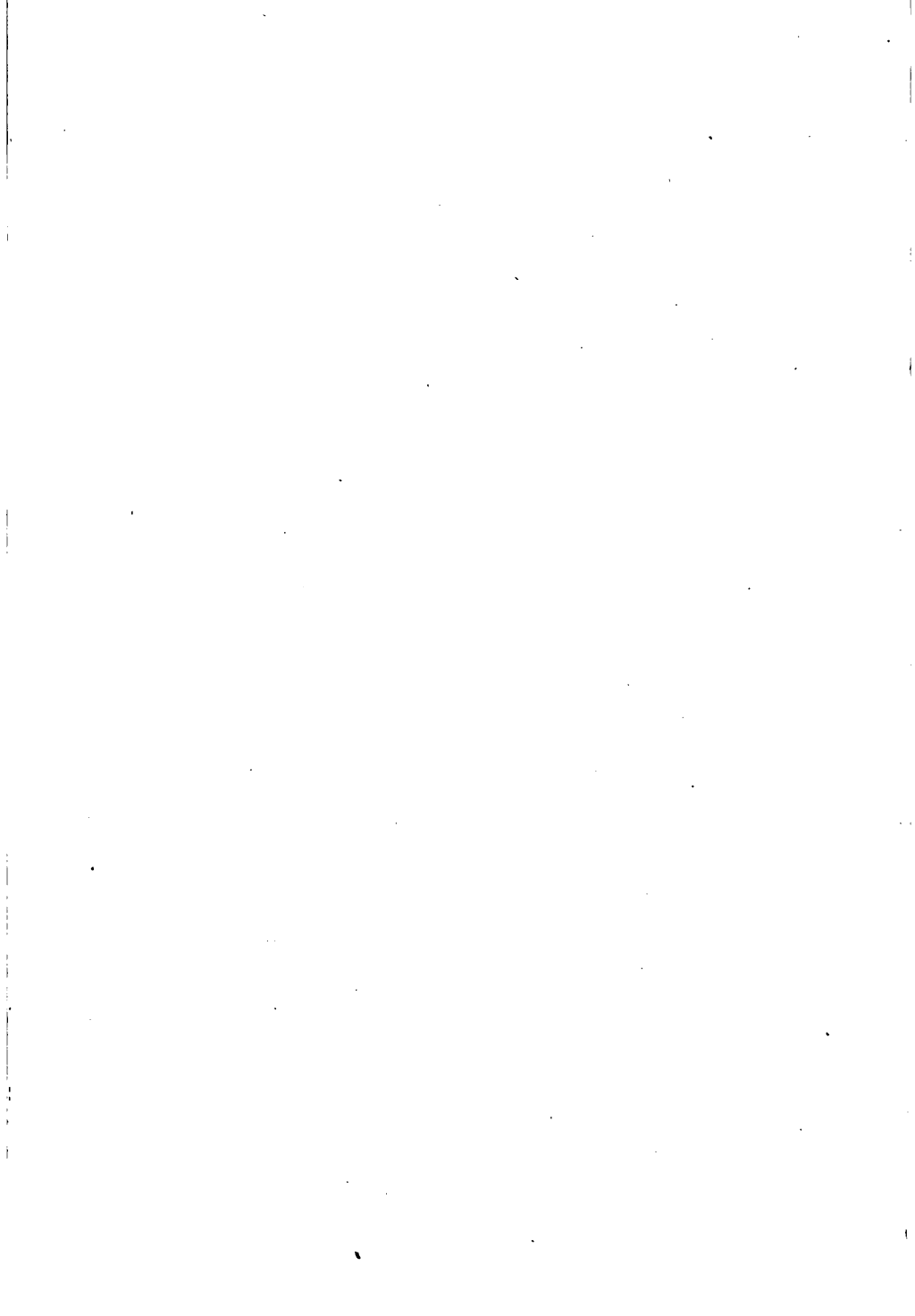
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TO THE MEMORY OF

My Father

WHOSE INTEREST IN ENGLISH

WAS MY INSPIRATION



PREFACE TO THE THIRTIETH THOUSAND.¹

SINCE the *Grammar of the English Sentence* appeared, twelve years ago, the author has used it as a text in sixty different classes, aggregating nearly ten thousand students. There could have been offered no better opportunity to determine what positions are tenable, what points need further elaboration, what statements should be modified, and what matter may be omitted. The opportunity has not been allowed to pass unused. The book has been entirely rewritten. Not every sentence has been changed, but every one has been carefully examined.

The fundamental ideas of the old book — *that grammar is the science of the sentence, that the sentence is determined by the thought it expresses, that English grammar should be an exposition of present usage, and that a knowledge of it is indispensable to ability to speak and write correctly* — remain fundamental in the new one. The historical feature has received no attention, — partly because others have done it so much better than the writer could do it, but chiefly because it is regarded as unessential to the purpose of this book. It has been estimated that of every hundred pupils now studying English grammar not more than one will ever read a page of English earlier than the age of Elizabeth. This book is for the ninety and nine. The one must find elsewhere the exhaustive study of historical English accidence.

Conspicuous among the new features are: —

(1) *More attention to the thought foundations of grammar.* The Introduction will afford the teacher an opportunity to work out with his class the essential relations between thought forms and their verbal expressions. This work will require care and patience, but it must be thoroughly mastered. Yet an effort has been made not to overdo this phase of the work, for it is well to keep constantly in mind that *grammar is grammar and not logic or psychology.*

¹ The Preface to the First Thousand may be seen on page 292.

(2) *An earlier and fuller explanation of some fundamental distinctions*, among which are,—(a) *subject of a verb, subject of a thought, and subject or agent of an act*; (b) *object of a verb, object of a thought, and object of an act*; (c) *a verb, the thought relation it expresses, and the action related in thought*. Any express or implied identification of these closely related, but widely different, things ends in everlasting confusion.

(3) *A systematic series of reviews*. It is not possible for a class to master the matter contained in these reviews without being well grounded in English grammar and abundantly able to apply its principles in correct expression.

(4) *More exercises in the construction of original sentences* to illustrate the principle under consideration. Of all grammatical exercises, this is the best.

(5) *A fuller discussion of all grammatical difficulties*, such as *Transitive and Intransitive Verbs; Attributive and Copulative Verbs; Voice, Mode, and Tense; Infinitives and Participles; Conjunctive or Relative, Direct Interrogative, and Indirect Interrogative Pronouns; Ordinary Conjunctive Adverbs, Relative Conjunctive Adverbs, Direct Interrogative Adverbs, and Indirect Interrogative Adverbs*.

Purpose of the Book.—In its present and final form the *Grammar of the English Sentence* is intended to serve as a text-book for high schools and normal schools, and as a hand-book for teachers that want something more than the essentials of English grammar. Except in the hands of a master, it is not well adapted to the needs of beginners. The author's *Grammar for Beginners* and *Grammar for the Common Schools* are better suited to those not yet ready for this book; and any one that cares for a more extended study of *Diagrammed Analysis* will find it in the *Analysis of the English Sentence with Diagrams*.

To the many thousands that have spoken kindly of the *Grammar of the English Sentence* in its original form, the author wishes to use this opportunity to express his gratitude, together with the hope that they will find this book more accurate, more interesting, and in every way more helpful.

JONATHAN RIGDON.

CENTRAL NORMAL COLLEGE,
June 1, 1903.

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GRAMMAR OF THE ENGLISH SENTENCE.



INTRODUCTION.

1. We find ourselves in a world of **objects**. *An object is anything toward which the mind may be directed.* This includes not only the things that we become acquainted with through the five senses, **material things**; but also those that can be represented only in thought, **immaterial things**. In the first class belong such as books and chairs, stones and stars; in the second, such as fear and hope, melancholy and mind.

2. *Name ten material objects. Ten immaterial objects.*

3. But one's real life is a **mental life**, a life of **thinking**. The world of objects is meaningless till we represent them and relate them in mind. To represent objects in mind is to form *ideas*. *An idea is a mental representation of an object.* (Keep in mind the broad definition of *object*, anything toward which thought can be directed.) To think is to affirm mentally the relations of objects. *A thought is the mental affirmation of a relation.*

4. **Man is a social being**. By nature he is communicative. He wishes to share his life with others. To do this he must embody his thoughts in some outward form that will induce others to think them. This outward embodiment of thought, this instrument of communication, is *language*. It consists of symbols established by agreement, and can be used for communication only by those

that participate in the agreement. In the broad sense of the word, **Language** is any and all symbols used in expression. It includes sounds and colors, motions and forms, pictures and signs, as well as words.

5. (1) *How many symbols of expression can you name?*
(2) *Do the lower animals think?* (3) *Do they have language?*

6. It will readily be seen that even if there should ever have been a time when all men used the same system of symbols, there are many causes that would have prevented them from long continuing to do so.

7. *Name some of these causes and show how they might have acted.*

8. It is clear, then, that at any time there will be as many languages as there are systems of symbols. All that agree upon one system use one language. Any one can use a language to the extent that he is master of its symbols. *A language is a system of symbols established by agreement for the expression of thought.*

9. *Name several languages.*

10. The **language process** moves in two directions: The mind seizes upon symbols and interprets them in thought. This movement is **impression**. The mind seizes its thought contents and embodies them in appropriate symbols. This is **expression**.

(a) The thought process in which the mind seizes and interprets objects may also be included under *impression*, though not strictly a language process.

11. The relation between the two movements is easily seen. Expression can never precede. Impression should always be a little but not much in advance. The two are inseparable movements of one process and should be so developed. *Expression without impression is impossible, and impression without expression is worthless.*

12. The **unit of language** is the portion of it that is necessary to express a thought. It is called a *sentence*. *A sentence is the expression of a thought.*

George works.

George is a worker.

Martha teaches.

Martha is a teacher.

Henry studies.

Henry is a student.

Write twenty sentences.

13. The **elements of thought** are ideas. There will be as many ideas as there are objects mentally represented, and as many kinds of ideas as there are kinds of objects. To enumerate all objects, material and immaterial, real and imaginary, would be an endless task. Yet they all fall into a few classes.

14. **Language is organized** or given form by the thought it expresses, and thought by the reality it represents. The final analysis of science has resolved the outside world into matter and motion, and the inside world, into mind and thought. That is to say, whether we consider the outside or the inside world, there are ultimately but **two kinds of objects**. Let us see what they are. We think of *matter* and *mind* as things having attributes; that is, as *substances*. *A substance is a thing having attributes. Name twenty substances. Name an attribute of each.* We think of *motion* and *thought* as being, respectively, motion of a mover, and thought of a thinker. That is, we think of them as *attributes*. *An attribute is any quality of a substance. Name twenty attributes. Name a substance of which each may be a quality.*

(a) These definitions run in a circle, but it is so of necessity. Things can be defined only as they are thought, and neither substance nor attribute is thinkable except each be thought in terms of the other.

15. Since, then, reality includes but two general classes of objects, substance and attributes, thought must include

but two general classes of ideas, *substance-ideas* and *attribute-ideas*. Define each.

16. This easily leads to an understanding of the nature of a thought, — a mental affirmation of the relation between substance and attribute ; as, MATTER MOVES, MIND THINKS. What are the necessary elements of a thought ? Certainly there are not more than two, a *substance-idea* and an *attribute-idea*.

17. We have, therefore, the two corresponding parts of a sentence, — a part to express a substance-idea (**Subject**), and a part to predicate of it or connect with it the expression of an attribute idea (**Predicate**).

(a) **Beginners in Logic** are likely to name three parts of a thought, — a subject idea, a predicate idea, and their relation. But this relation is the thought itself, and certainly a logician would not name a thing as one of its own parts.

(b) Likewise some grammarians name **three parts of a sentence**, — a subject, a predicate, and a copula ; but it should be kept in mind that the predicate, as the name indicates, is the part of the sentence that *predicates*. It includes the office of a copula and that of an attribute. Thus, in the sentence, *George is a farmer*, *George* is the subject, and *is farmer* is the predicate, of which *is* is the copula and *farmer* is the attribute. In this sentence, the copulative and attributive offices of the predicate are expressed by different words ; but the two are as commonly expressed by a single word, as in *George farms*. What are the three parts in this sentence ?

Besides the subject there is but one word, and it is an indivisible part of the sentence. Certainly no one could contend that some of the letters of *farms* are the copula and the others the predicate ! Any one maintaining that there are three elements in a sentence, when asked to

point them out in such a sentence as, "George farms," is obliged to do it by adroitly leaving it and substituting in its stead its equivalent, "George is a farmer." But after such a performance it is always in order to insist, What are the three elements in *this* sentence, "George farms"? The answer must be, The subject is "George," the predicate is "farms," and there are no others. The word "farms" does, indeed, have a double office, copulative and attributive, as does every predicate whether it contains one word or two; but "farms" is the predicate, and as a part of the sentence it is no more divisible than is the subject "George." A sentence, then, has but two elements, *subject* and *predicate*.

(c) Just as all outer reality is resolvable into matter and motion, and all inner reality into mind and thought, so language in its early form needs but two parts of speech, the *noun* and the *verb*.

Indeed, if one should feel inclined to push the synthesis, it could be made plausible that the sentence is itself an element not further resolvable; for there is no such thing as a subject without a predicate or a predicate without a subject. The sentence is the unit of language. In the mental world, the thought is the elemental form of all thinking. It is the unit. And if we push on into the field of reality, the parallel is perfect, for we do not have matter *and* motion; we have only *matter moving* or *moving matter*. There are not the two things mind *and* thought; but only the one thing, *mind thinking* or *thinking mind*. So it is next to certain that in the very beginning of language there were not even two parts of speech, but only one. The substantive (subject) was contained in the verb, so that a single word expressed an entire sentence. Indeed, we find good evidence of this even in a highly developed stage of language. For example, take *amo*, meaning *I love*; *pluit*, *it rains*, etc.

PARTS OF SPEECH.

18. By parts of speech we mean *classes of words according to their uses in the sentence*. Let us now learn these uses and the corresponding parts of speech. Incidentally we have already named two, the *noun* and the *verb*.

19. **Noun.** — Perhaps the most common use of words is to name objects. It would be very inconvenient to converse or write about objects without naming them. *A noun is a name of an object*; as, Henry, man, Indianapolis, city, Ohio, state, St. Lawrence, river.

(a) Observe again the broad sense of the word *object*, — anything toward which our thought may be directed. This includes not only such things as those just named, but also such as mind, hope, love, beauty, laziness.

(b) Any expression that may stand in a sentence as a noun, anything that may be made the subject of a sentence, is called a **substantive**; as, *To lie* is disgraceful; *For one to do all his work well* is difficult; *How you can be so happy when you work so hard* puzzles him.

20. (1) *Write the names of twenty objects not named above and differing as much as possible.* (2) *Write a sentence about each.* (3) *Draw a line under each noun.* (4) *Draw a line over each subject and one over each predicate.*

21. **Pronoun.** — Many times we wish to designate an object without naming it. This is commonly done by a *pronoun*. *I* like *him* and *he* likes *you* and *her*. Here *I*, *him*, *he*, *you*, and *her* designate the same objects their names would. Also, in the sentences, — *Who* spoke? and *A boy that tries* learns, — *who* and *that* designate objects without naming them. Since such words are used instead of nouns, they are called *pronouns*. *A pronoun is that part of speech used to designate an object without naming it.* Or, as it is often defined, *a pronoun is a word used instead of a noun.*

22. (1) *Designate in sentences twenty objects without naming them.* (2) *Underline each pronoun.* (3) *Overline each subject and each predicate.*

23. **Verb.** — A large class of words is used to assert attributes; as, The wind *blows*; The man *reels*; The duck *swims*; The boy *is* tall; The child *was* sick; The tools *were* dull. All the italicized words are verbs, but they are not all alike. The first three not only assert, but also express, attributes; the last three only assert attributes that are expressed by other words.

The verb is the part of speech that asserts an attribute.

(a) The definition is so stated for brevity; infinitives and participles, which do not assert but only assume, should be classed under verbs.

(b) Remember that every sentence contains a verb. You may know the verb by its being the part of the sentence that *asserts, affirms, declares, or tells.*

(c) Remember that *every predicate either is a verb or contains one.* If the verb both asserts and expresses the attribute, the predicate is the verb. If the verb only asserts the attribute, then the verb together with the word or words expressing the attribute constitutes the predicate. *Make this clear by illustrations.*

24. (1) *Name thirty verbs.* (2) *Use them in sentences,—ten of them only asserting attributes, and twenty both asserting and expressing attributes.* (3) *Point out the subject and the predicate of each sentence; the asserting part of each predicate; the attributive part; the nouns and pronouns.*

25. **Adjectives.** — It is often necessary to express an attribute without either asserting or naming it. We have already learned that when a part of speech both expresses and asserts an attribute, it is a verb; and that when it expresses an attribute or any other object by naming it, it is a noun. We have now to see that it is the office of

another class of words to express attributes without either asserting or naming them. Such are the italicized words in the following sentences: The *heavy* ball struck the *hard* floor. The *old* master made the *difficult* lesson *plain* to his *little* pupil. Such words are *adjectives*. An *adjective* is the part of speech that expresses an attribute of a substance without asserting or naming it.

26. (1) Use in sentences twenty adjectives. (2) Designate each. (3) Point out the nouns, pronouns, and verbs. (4) Also each subject and predicate. (5) State fully and clearly the office of each italicized word in the following sentences: The man *totters*. *Frailty* is in the man. The man is *frail*. (6) Give the part of speech of each. (7) Why?

27. **Adverb.** — In the sentence, "We watched the *slowly* descending sun," we see that the adjective *descending* expresses an attribute of the object *sun*. We must note that the attribute expressed by *descending* has itself the attribute, *slow*. This attribute of an attribute is expressed by the word *slowly*. In "The man *greatly* surprised us," as we have already learned, the verb *surprised* not only asserts, it also expresses an attribute of the man. He was a *surprising* man. Let us see also that the attribute *surprising* had the attribute *great*. The word *greatly* expresses an attribute of an attribute. Such words as *slowly* and *greatly* are called *adverbs*. Also, in "He is *certainly* right," and "You are *probably* mistaken,"—*certainly* and *probably* express the *modes* in which the mind affirms attributes of substances. Words used like *certainly* and *probably* are also called *adverbs*. The *adverb* is the part of speech that expresses either an attribute of an attribute or a mode of mental connection.

(a) Adverbs commonly express attributes of attributes. When they do, they may be called *common adverbs*. When an adverb expresses the mode of mental connection, it is called a *modal adverb*.

28. (1) *Define an Adverb, Common Adverb, Modal Adverb.* (2) *Use in sentences ten modal adverbs and twenty common adverbs.* (3) *Explain carefully why each is so called.* (4) *Draw lines over the subjects and predicates.* (5) *Point out each noun, pronoun, verb, and adjective, and tell why each is so called.*

29. **Preposition.** — The verb is the chief relational element in language. Whether it only asserts, as in “Maude *is* a singer,” or both asserts and expresses an attribute, as in “Maude *sings*,” it always expresses a relation between substance and attribute. It is the only part of speech that can *affirm* relation. Two other parts of speech, however, can *express* relation. In “The gentleman *by* me came *for* him,” *by* expresses the relation between the gentleman and myself; and *for* expresses the relation between the act of coming and the object represented by the pronoun *him*. It may be observed also that each of these words governs a substantive called its *object*. That is, it requires that substantive to be in the objective case. The pronouns *me* and *him* are respectively the objects of *by* and *for*. Words that express relation without affirming it and govern objects are called *prepositions*. *The preposition is the part of speech that expresses relation without affirming it and governs a substantive called its object.*

30. (1) *Use in sentences twenty-five prepositions.* (2) *Designate each and the parts it relates. Draw a line over each subject and each predicate.* (3) *Point out the nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.* (4) *Give your reason for thinking each is what you call it.*

31. **Conjunctions.** — In “He *and* I came,” “She *or* he will go,” “Paul is strong *but* Peter is weak,” the italicized words express relations. In this respect they resemble verbs and prepositions. Unlike verbs, they do not *affirm* relation; and unlike both verbs and prepositions, they

have no *governing* power over substantives. Words that express relations without affirming them and that are without a governing power over substantives are called *conjunctions*. *The conjunction is the part of speech that lacks a governing power and expresses relation without affirming it.*

32. *Use in sentences ten conjunctions. (2) Designate the parts each relates or connects. (3) Point out subjects, predicates, nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and prepositions. (4) Give reasons. (5) How are verbs, prepositions, and conjunctions alike? (6) In what respect is the verb like the preposition and unlike the conjunction? (7) In what respect is the preposition like the conjunction and unlike the verb? (8) Justify your answers by reference to the sentences you have written.*

33. Interjection. — If we observe our thoughts carefully, we shall see that feelings are thrown in between them. These feelings are expressed by words called *interjections*. *The interjection is the part of speech that expresses the isolated feelings thrown in between thoughts.* Such words as *ah*, *ha*, and *bah* are interjections.

34. *Name ten other interjections and tell what feeling each expresses.*

(a) If we adhere closely to the definition of language, *the expression of thought*, the interjection cannot be regarded as a part of speech; but without it we should not be able to express all that takes place in our mental processes.

(b) The excessive use of interjections indicates that the thought process is abnormally interrupted.

35. Expletives. — Any word in our language may be put into one of these eight classes, but there are a few words that are often merely introductory and without grammatical dependence. Those most frequently used are *and*, *for*,

that, there; as, "*And it came to pass.*" "*And I say unto you.*" "*For him to act so is a disgrace to his parents.*" "*There is none good but one.*" "*And there was in their synagogue a man with an unclean spirit.*" "*And there came a voice from heaven.*" "*That he did the mischief is settled.*" "*But I say unto you, that Elias is indeed come.*" Such words are called **Introductory expletives.**

36. Grammar is *the study of the sentence*.

(a) **Its end** is a scientific mastery of the structure of the sentence, a necessary preparation for the higher language studies, a development of the power of discrimination, and the habit of correct expression acquired by intelligent practice.

(b) **Its divisions** are *etymology* and *syntax*. *Etymology* treats of the classes and properties of words, while *syntax* discusses the ways in which words are related to form a sentence.

(c) *Orthography* and *prosody* were formerly named as divisions of Grammar, but are no longer so considered.

(d) *Syntax* may be studied under the form of either *analysis* or *synthesis*.

(e) *Analysis* is such a separation of the sentence as will show the relation of its parts.

(f) *Synthesis* is such a combination of parts as will form a sentence.

37. It may be seen from the following that all the parts of speech may be grouped under **five classes**:

- (a) *Substantives.* $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} (1) \text{ Nouns.} \\ (2) \text{ Pronouns.} \end{array} \right.$

- (b) *Verbs* (3) { Finite. { Infinitives.
 { In-finite. { Participles.

- (c) *Modifiers.* $\begin{cases} (4) \text{ Adjectives.} \\ (5) \text{ Adverbs.} \end{cases}$

- (d) *Connective or Relation words.* { (6) Preposition.
(7) Conjunction.

- (e) *Independent words.* { (8) Interjections.
Expletives.

PROPERTIES OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

38. Property is any modification of the sentential force of a part of speech. It is sometimes called *Grammatical Form* or *Modification*.

39. Thus *number*, a mode of distinguishing one from more than one, is a property of nouns and pronouns; as, book, books; I, we,

40. Tense, a mode of denoting time, is a property of the verb. (Walk — walked.)

41. Comparison, a mode of denoting degrees of quality, is a property of adjectives and adverbs. Long — longer — longest.

42. The following are all the properties of the parts of speech.

- | | | |
|---|---|---|
| (1) <i>Person</i> | } | Properties of nouns, pronouns, and verbs. |
| (2) <i>Number</i> | | |
| (3) <i>Gender</i> | | |
| (4) <i>Case</i> | } | Properties of nouns and pronouns. |
| (5) <i>Voice</i> | | |
| (6) <i>Mode</i> | } | Properties of verbs. |
| (7) <i>Tense</i> | | |
| (8) <i>Comparison</i> — A property of adjectives and adverbs. | | |

The *preposition*, the *conjunction*, and the *interjection* have no grammatical properties.

43. Inflection is any variation in form a part of speech undergoes to denote grammatical property. It may be (1) by a change in the ending, (2) by different words, (3) by the addition of auxiliaries.

44. Sometimes a property is indicated by the position of a word in a sentence.

- (a) *Declension* is inflection of nouns and pronouns.
- (b) *Comparison* is inflection of adjectives and adverbs.
- (c) *Conjugation* or *Synopsis* is the inflection of verbs.

45. Exercise. — *Tell the Part of Speech to which each word belongs, and, if you know them, name its properties.*

1. The liberty of the press is the highest safeguard to all free government. 2. Ours could not exist without it. 3. It is like a great, exalting, and abounding river. 4. It is fed by the dews of heaven, which distil their sweetest drops to form it. 5. It gushes from the rill, as it breaks from the deep caverns of the earth. 6. It is augmented by a thousand affluents, that dash from the mountain top to separate again into a thousand bounteous and irrigating streams around. 7. On its broad bosom it bears a thousand barks. 8. There genius spreads its purpling sail. 9. There poetry dips its silver oar. 10. There art, invention, discovery, science, morality, religion, may safely and securely float. 11. It wanders through every land. 12. It is a genial, cordial source of thought and inspiration wherever it touches, whatever it surrounds. 13. Upon its borders there grows every flower of grace and every fruit of truth. 14. Sir, I am not here to deny that that river sometimes oversteps its bounds. 15. I am not here to deny that that stream sometimes becomes a dangerous torrent, and destroys towns and cities upon its bank. 16. But I am here to say that without it, civilization, humanity, government, all that makes society itself, would disappear, and the world would return to its ancient barbarism. — *E. D. Baker.*

PARSING.

46. Parsing is naming in order the part of speech to which a word belongs, its class, its properties, its construction, and the rule governing the construction.

(a) Parsing is an excellent exercise for leading beginners to distinguish the parts of speech and to determine their relation.

(b) By *construction* of a word is meant its dependence on some other, its government.

(c) The abridged parsing may be oral; the complete parsing may be either oral or written. In all written parsing see that the spelling, punctuation, and capitals are correct.

47. ABRIDGED MODEL FOR ALL THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

1. Species. 2. Construction. 3. Rule.

(a) See Rules on page 234

(1) *O*, how well *Mattie* and *Susan* play upon their new instruments.

O is an interjection; it has no grammatical construction, R. XVII.

Well is an adverb and limits *play*, R. XI.

Mattie is a noun, subject of *play*, R. I.

And is a conjunction and connects *Mattie* and *Susan*, R. XII.

Play is a verb and agrees with its subjects *Mattie* and *Susan*, R. XV.

Upon is a preposition and shows the relation between *instruments* and *play*, R. XIII.

Their is a pronoun and limits *instruments*, R. VIII.

New is an adjective and limits *instruments*, R. X.

SUBJECTS, AGENTS, VERBS, ACTIONS, AND OBJECTS.

48. We must be careful to mark the following important distinctions: In the sentence, "Bob cut the tree," "cut" is a *verb* representing a real *action*; "Bob" is the *subject* representing a real *agent*; and "tree" is the *object* of "cut" and represents the real tree that was the *object of the act* of cutting. Observe that an agent performs an action upon an object. The agent is the doer of the act, and the thing upon which the act terminates is the object or receiver of the act. Now we are thinking and speaking of *reality*. But if we talk of *language*, we say that in our sentence, *cut* is a *verb*, its *subject* is *Bob*, and its *object* is *tree*. Here we speak of *words*, not *things*.

49. The object of a verb always expresses the object of an action; but as we shall better understand later, the object of an action is not always represented by the object of a verb but sometimes by its subject; and the agent of

an action is not always represented by the subject of a verb, but sometimes by the object of a preposition.

50. With reference to the statements made above, discuss the italicized words in the following sentences: —

(1) *Matilda broke her vase.*

(2) *The sheds were blown down by the storm.*

PREDICATE-ATTRIBUTES AND OBJECTS.

51. By *attribute* we mean primarily a *quality attributed to a substance*. We say transparency is an attribute of glass. But the word *attribute* is also a language term, meaning an *attributive expression*, that is, the expression of an attribute or group of attributes. Thus, in the sentences, "Glass is transparent," "The old man is infirm," and "Ruth is an artist," we say *transparent* is an attribute of *glass*; *old* and *infirm* are attributes of *man*, and *artist* is an attribute of *Ruth*. When an attribute completes a predicate, it is called a *predicate-attribute*. This is the same as to say *transparent* is an attributive modifier of *glass*; and *old* and *infirm* are attributive modifiers of *man*. In this sense *attributive* is often used instead of *attribute*.

52. We have learned that the term *object* is applied both to the *reality* that receives an action, and to the *word* that expresses this reality and at the same time completes a transitive verb. We have seen also that the term *attribute* refers both to a *quality* attributed to a substance and to the *word* that expresses this quality. We must now be careful to distinguish the terms *object* and *attribute* as used in grammar.

53. *An Object is any expression completing a transitive verb and expressing the receiver of an action.*

54. *A Predicate-Attribute is any attributive expression that completes a copulative verb.*

(a) An *object* is always a noun or an expression used as a noun ; that is, it is always a *substantive*.

(b) A *predicate-attribute* is always an adjective or a noun, or an expression so used.

55. *Distinguish the objects and predicate-attributes in —*

- | | |
|-------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| (1) Men love pleasure. | (6) We like to sing. |
| (2) The sun is golden. | (7) They are without help. |
| (3) It is unbelievable. | (8) The question is, Who did it ? |
| (4) John lost his hat. | (9) I know that he will come. |
| (5) It is surprising. | (10) We are in need. |

56. *Complements.*

- | | |
|------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| (1) Children <i>play</i> . | (5) Some men <i>are agreeable</i> . |
| (2) Flowers <i>bloom</i> . | (6) Smith <i>is a detective</i> . |
| (3) God <i>created the world</i> . | (7) She <i>became ill</i> . |
| (4) Birds <i>build nests</i> . | (8) George <i>became a scholar</i> . |

57. By comparing the first two of these sentences with the last six, it will be observed that some verbs like *play* and *bloom* are complete in themselves, while others like *created*, *build*, *are*, *is*, and *became*, require the addition of other words like *world*, *nests*, *agreeable*, *detective*, *ill*, and *scholar* to complete their meaning. Verbs may therefore be divided into **complete** and **incomplete**. Again, it may be seen that some incomplete verbs like *created* and *build* require **objects** — words that represent recipients of action — to complete them ; while other verbs like the last four require **attributes** — words expressing qualities.

(a) In the sentences given above *play* and *bloom* are intransitive and attributive ; *created* and *build* are transitive and attributive ; *are*, *is*, and *became* are intransitive and copulative ; and in “ *She was considered honest*,” and “ *He was appointed captain*,” the verbs are transitive and copulative.

58. (1) *A verb that represents the action of an agent as affecting an object is Transitive.*

59. (2) *A verb that does not represent the action of an agent as affecting an object is Intransitive.*

60. (3) *A verb that requires an attribute of its subject to complete it is Copulative.*

61. (4) *A verb that does not require an attribute of its subject to complete it is Attributive.*

62. (5) *Whatever completes an incomplete verb is a Complement.*

63. (6) *The object that completes a transitive verb is an Objective Complement.*

64. (7) *The attribute that completes a copulative verb is an Attributive Complement.*

65. *In the following sentences tell whether the verbs are attributive or copulative, transitive or intransitive; designate each complement and tell whether it is objective or attributive.*

- (1) Columbus discovered America.
- (2) God said, Let there be light, and there was light.
- (3) She thought I was mistaken.
- (4) Milton wrote Paradise Lost.
- (5) She was made secretary of the convention.
- (6) Slang never becomes a lady or gentleman.
- (7) He was reported absent.
- (8) It is good for us to be here.
- (9) Whatever is, is right.
- (10) He became President after he had served several terms in the Senate.

(1) *Ask ten good questions on articles 51-65.* (2) *Answer them.*

KINDS OF SENTENCES.

66. Observing the attitude of our thoughts toward the realities they represent, we see that some of them are merely intellectual declarations, some are emotional connections, some are questions, and others represent real relations as not yet established, but to be requested or demanded of some agent. We have, therefore, four kinds of sentences as to use : —

67. *A Declarative Sentence is one that merely affirms a relation; as "John has a bird in his pocket."*

68. *An Exclamatory Sentence is one that expresses the feeling aroused by apprehending a relation; as, "John has a bird in his pocket!"*

69. *An Interrogative Sentence is one that inquires as to the existence of a relation; as, "Has John a bird in his pocket?"*

70. *An Imperative Sentence is one that requests or demands the establishment of a relation; as, "John, have a bird in your pocket."*

71. Observing also the form of our thoughts, some are *isolated* or *single*, others are closely *connected* but *coördinate*, and others are *dependent one upon another*. Their expression gives us **three kinds of sentences as to form:—**

72. *A Simple Sentence is the expression of a single thought; as, "The flowers are fragrant."*

73. *A Compound Sentence is one that expresses two or more connected but coördinate thoughts; as, "The flowers are fragrant and the rain has nourished them."*

74. *A Complex Sentence is one that expresses a principal thought together with one or more subordinate thoughts depending upon it; as, "The flowers are fragrant because the rain has nourished them."*

(a) In the last example, "The flowers are fragrant" expresses the principal thought, and "the rain has nourished them," the subordinate thought.

(b) In a complex sentence, the sentence expressing the principal thought is called the **principal sentence**, and any one expressing a subordinate thought is a **subordinate sentence or clause**.

75. Classes of Sentences.

(1) AS TO FORM:—

(a) *Simple*.—Paul walks.

(b) *Compound*.—Paul walks and Peter rides.

(c) *Complex*.—Paul walks because Peter rides.

(2) AS TO USE: —

- (d) *Declarative.* — The boys are honest.
- (e) *Interrogative.* — Are the boys honest?
- (f) *Exclamatory.* — The boys are honest!
- (g) *Imperative.* — Boys, be honest.

76. Classify each of the following sentences according to use: —

- (1) The last of all the Bards was he.
- (2) Slavery they can have anywhere.
- (3) When should education be commenced?
- (4) Stand by your convictions.
- (5) What a contrast these boys present!

77. Classify each of the following sentences according to form: —

- (1) In the sands of Africa and Arabia the camel is valuable.
- (2) The gain is doubtful but the danger is certain.
- (3) Let us live while we live.
- (4) The harvest is plenteous, but the laborers are few.
- (5) Except ye repent, ye shall all likewise perish.

78. Classify each of the following sentences according to both form and use: —

- (1) The decision of the judge increased the irritation of the people.
- (2) A truly great man borrows no lustre from splendid ancestry.
- (3) Study to acquire a habit of accurate expression.
- (4) He that is giddy thinks the world turns round.
- (5) Forgive us our debts, as we forgive our debtors.
- (6) Now stir the fire and close the shutters fast.
- (7) It is one thing to be well informed; it is another to be wise.
- (8) What thrilling experiences this old oak might utter if it could speak!
- (9) The song that moves a nation's heart is in itself a deed.
- (10) It is good for a man that he bear the yoke in his youth.

79. Write: —

- (1) three simple sentences, (4) three declarative sentences,
- (2) three compound sentences, (5) three interrogative sentences,
- (3) three complex sentences, (6) three exclamatory sentences,
- (7) three imperative sentences.

PHRASES.

80. A Phrase is any group of words forming a modifier that is not a sentence; as,

"The history of our country is full of thrilling events." "The men came with great clamor to drive the wolves away from the flock."

(a) Any part of speech together with its modifiers may properly be called a phrase, which is named from its chief word or basis. Thus according to basis we may have a *noun phrase*, as, "*The little boy cried*"; a *verb phrase*, as, "*George stood by the old elm*"; an *adjective phrase*, as, "*Grammar is very interesting*"; an *adverbial phrase*, as, "*We advance very rapidly*"; an *infinitive phrase*, as, "*He likes to walk rapidly*"; a *participial phrase*, as, "*The dog coming toward us is Major*"; a *prepositional phrase*, as, "*The captain stands by his men*." We may even speak of an *interjection phrase*, as, "*Alas for maiden*"; or a *conjunction phrase*, as, "*John as well as Susan was mistaken*."

(b) In the following classification only two kinds of phrases as to basis are considered, *prepositional* and *infinitive*.

(c) The word *modifier* is used in a very broad sense. Ordinarily we speak only of *adjective*, *adverbial*, and *objective* modifiers. In "*Those bad boys tease us constantly*," *bad* is an adjective modifier of *boys*; *us* and *constantly* are modifiers of *tease*. *Us* is objective, and *constantly*, adverbial. But we may as correctly say that a verb modifies its object as that the object modifies its verb. When we say an object modifies its verb, we mean the object expresses the recipient of the verb's action; and to say a verb modifies its object means that it determines the case relation and often the form of its object. With equal correctness we may say a subject modifies its verb, and a verb modifies both its subject and its attributive complement. In "*You are he*," *you* determines the form of *are*, and *are* in turn determines the form of both *you* and *he*.

81. Classes of Phrases.

(1) AS TO FORM:—

- (a) *Simple*. — We left *in the evening*.
- (b) *Compound*. — *To direct well and to do well* are different things. He came *in the morning, at noon, and at night*.
- (c) *Complex*. — The kite flew *over the tops of the trees*.

(2) AS TO BASIS:—

- (d) *Prepositional*. — The city of *Brooklyn* is *in the state of New York*.
- (e) *Infinitive*. — He came *to learn*. He asks permission *to remain*.

(3) AS TO USE : —

(f) *Adjective*. — The road *through the valley* is rough. All have the right to vote.

(g) *Adverbial*. — He does his work *with care*.

(h) *Substantive*. — *To forgive* is divine. He likes *to be let alone*.

82. *A Simple Phrase is a single phrase.*

83. *A Compound Phrase is one consisting of two or more coördinate phrases.*

84. *A Complex Phrase is one some modifier in which is a prepositional or infinitive phrase.*

85. *A Prepositional Phrase is one whose basis is a preposition and its object.*

86. *An Infinitive Phrase is one whose basis is an infinitive.*

87. *An Adjective Phrase is one used as an adjective.*

88. *An Adverbial Phrase is one used as an adverb.*

89. *A Substantive Phrase is one used as a noun.*

(a) A prepositional phrase is not often used substantively.

90. In the following sentences, classify each phrase, (1) *as to form*, (2) *as to basis*, and (3) *as to use*.

(1) To see is to believe.

(2) He came to learn and to improve his health.

(3) We do not wish to detract from your reputation.

(4) They have been invited to unite with our class.

(5) I got the information in the letter from your father.

(6) To succeed in covering up a fault is harder than to keep from committing it.

91. *Write sentences containing : —*

(1) three simple phrases,

(5) three infinitive phrases,

(2) three compound phrases,

(6) three adjective phrases,

(3) three complex phrases,

(7) three adverbial phrases,

(4) three prepositional phrases,

(8) three substantive phrases.

CLAUSES.

92. A clause is any group of words forming a sentence that is used as a modifier; as, He came *when he was wanted*. She said *that she was hungry*. The horse *that died yesterday* was worth five thousand dollars.

(a) The word *clause* is often used as a synonym for *sentence*, but throughout this book it will be used in accordance with the definition given above, to signify a *subordinate sentence*.

(b) Be careful to distinguish a *phrase* from a *clause*. Both are modifiers. They are unlike in that a clause always contains a subject and predicate, while a phrase does not.

(c) A clause may contain a phrase, as in "A house *that is set on a hill* cannot be hid"; or a phrase may contain a clause, as in, "We were talking *about how it happened*."

CLASSES OF CLAUSES.

93. (1) AS TO FORM:—

(a) *Simple*. — *That he was wrong* is evident.

(b) *Compound*. — *That he was wrong and that he knew it* is evident.

(c) *Complex*. — *That he was wrong when he said it* is evident.

94. (2) AS TO USE:—

(d) *Adjective*. — Here is the boy *that is sick*.

(e) *Adverbial*. — He lies *where he fell*.

(f) *Substantive*. — He thinks *that I am not honest*.

How he did it is a mystery.

His motto is, *All men should work*.

His motto, *Most men may be trusted*, is a safe one.

95. A Simple Clause is a single clause.

96. A Compound Clause is one consisting of two or more coordinate clauses.

97. A Complex Clause is one some modifier in which is a clause.

98. An Adjective Clause is one used as an adjective.

99. An Adverbial Clause is one used as an adverb.

100. *A Substantive Clause is one used as a noun.*

101. *In the following sentences classify each clause.*

(1) *as to form*, and (2) *as to use*.

- (1) We must seek shelter, for the storm is near.
- (2) They that are whole need not a physician.
- (3) When I was a child I spoke as children speak.
- (4) He is the gentleman that I met in Washington when I went to see you.
- (5) That he should have failed when all the conditions were so favorable, is hard to understand.
- (6) Who does not believe that he will do what he promises?

102. *Write sentences containing : —*

- | | |
|-----------------------------|--------------------------------|
| (1) three simple clauses, | (4) three adjective clauses, |
| (2) three compound clauses, | (5) three adverbial clauses, |
| (3) three complex clauses, | (6) three substantive clauses. |

CAPITALS.

103. *A Capital Letter should begin : —*

- (1) The first word of every sentence.
- (2) The first word of every line of poetry.
- (3) The first word of every direct quotation.
- (4) All proper nouns and proper adjectives.
- (5) Names of things personified.
- (6) Names of the days of the week and of the months of the year ; but not of the seasons.
- (7) All words used as titles or particular names.
- (8) All words referring to the Supreme Being.
- (9) The pronoun *I*, the interjection *O*, and single letters forming abbreviations should be capitals.

PUNCTUATION.

104. *Punctuation is the art of indicating the construction of the different parts of the sentence.*

105. *A. TERMINAL MARKS : —*

The period
The interrogation mark	.	.	.	?	
The exclamation mark	.	.	.	!	

106. The **Period** is used at the end of a declarative or an imperative sentence.

(a) The period is used within a sentence after all abbreviations, after any expression used as a heading, and after figures or letters used to mark the sections or parts of a production.

107. The **Interrogation Mark** is used at the end of an interrogative sentence.

(a) The interrogation mark may be used after any word in the sentence to denote uncertainty or to imply the opposite of what is expressed.

108. The **Exclamation Mark** is used at the end of an exclamatory sentence.

(a) It is often used within a sentence after an interjection or any other exclamatory word.

109. B. MARKS USED WITHIN THE SENTENCE : —

The comma	,
The semicolon	;
The colon	:

(a) Only those most frequently used, and only the principal uses of each are named here.

110. General Rule for the Comma. — *Use a comma when the omission of it would render the construction of some part of the sentence obscure.*

1. To separate elements having the same construction : —

Intelligence, integrity, industry, are the elements of success. Our hopes and fears, pleasures and pains, make up the interesting side of life. From night till morning, from morning till night, she whiled her miserable life away. When I was a child, I spake as a child, I understood as a child, I thought as a child.

EXCEPTION. — When two elements are closely connected by a conjunction, no comma is needed ; as, " Learning expands and elevates the mind."

2. To set off appositive, explanatory, parenthetical, or introductory, words, phrases, or clauses : —

Dickens, the great novelist, is a teacher of human nature. The mind, which studies all things, should study itself most. He that can think, and all can do that, need not be lonely. To speak plainly, I do not care to associate with him.

3. To mark the omission of a verb : —

The wise man considers what he wants ; the fool, what he abounds in.

111. General Rule for the Semicolon. — *Use a semicolon between elements less closely connected than those separated by a comma.*

It is the first point of wisdom to avoid evil ; the second, to make it good. Improve every minute ; for time lost is lost forever.

112. General Rule for the Colon. — *The colon is used to precede a supplemental or explanatory remark.*

I admire the sublime passage : “ God said, Let there be light, and there was light.”

EXERCISE IN PUNCTUATION AND CAPITALIZATION.

113. (1) Observe closely the capitals and punctuation of everything you read.

(2) Punctuate and capitalize correctly every sentence you writè.

114. *In the following Review, let answers be given in complete and correct sentences : —*

A. (1) Define *object*. (2) Name two kinds. (3) Illustrate. (4) Define *idea*. (5) What is it to *think* ? (6) Define a *thought*. (7) What is *language* ? (8) How do we come to have language ? (9) What is a *language* ? (10) How is it that we have *different languages* ? (11) Illustrate. (12) How many may there be ? (13) Name six. (14) State clearly the *two directions of the language process*. (15) Name them. (16) Define each. (17) State the relation between them. (18) What is the *unit of language* ? (19) Why ? (20) Define a *sentence*. (21) What are the *elements of thought* ? (22) How many ideas are possible ? (23) What gives *form to language* ? (24) What gives *form to thought* ? (25) Explain. (26) Show how all objects, both material and immaterial, fall into *two classes*. (27) Name, and define each. (28) Show how, according to this classification, *mind and matter belong to the same class*. (29) How are *thought and motion* alike ? (30) What, then, are the *two*

elements of every thought ? (31) Define each. (32) *Why not three ?* (33) What are *two* corresponding *parts of every sentence ?* (34) Define and illustrate each. (35) *Why not three ?*

B. In reality, a *sentence*, instead of having three parts, or even two parts, *is an inseparable unity*.

(1) Explain. (2) Make similar statements about a *thought* and *reality*. (3) Explain. (4) What is meant by *parts of speech ?* (5) What parts of speech are *indispensable* in all expression ? (6) Explain your statement.

C. Observing strictly the following order : —

- (1) State seven offices that words must perform,
- (2) Name the corresponding parts of speech, stating definitely their respective offices, and
- (3) Define each part of speech.

(1) In what sense is an *interjection* a part of speech ? (2) In what sense is it not ? (3) What is an *expletive* ? (4) What words are most used as expletives ?

D. Arrange all the parts of speech under *five classes*.

(1) Define *property*. (2) Illustrate. (3) Name all *grammatical properties*, and tell to what part of speech each belongs. (4) Define *inflection*. (5) Illustrate. (6) What is *parsing* ? (7) What is it to give the *construction* of a word ? (8) Distinguish *subject* and *agent*. (9) Illustrate. (10) Distinguish *verb* and *action*. (11) Illustrate. (12) Distinguish the *object of a verb* and the *object of an action*. (13) State their relation. (14) State the relation between the *subject of a verb* and the *agent of an act*. (15) What are the two uses of the word *attribute* ? (16) Define *predicate-attribute*. (17) Illustrate. (18) Distinguish *object* and *predicate-attribute*. (19) Illustrate. (20) Each may be what part of speech ? (21) Illustrate. (22) Define *complete verbs*. (23) *Incomplete verbs*. (24) *Transitive verbs*. (25) *Intransitive verbs*. (26) *Copulative verbs*. (27) *Attributive verbs*. (28) *Complement*. (29) Name, define, and illustrate two kinds of complements. (30) Name and explain two *thought bases* that give rise to *classes of sentences*. (31) Name, define, and illustrate each *kind of sentence as to use*. (32) As to *form*.

E. Referring to the outline of sentences, Article 75, illustrate : —

ad, ae, af, ag;
bd, be, bf, bg;
cd, ce, cf, cg.

(1) Define a phrase. (2) Illustrate. (3) Name, define, and illustrate each of the following kinds of phrases: *noun, verb, adjective, adverbial, infinitive, participial, prepositional, interjection, conjunction*. (4) Explain the broad use of the word *modifier*. (5) Name, define, and illustrate the kinds of phrases (a) as to *form*, (b) as to *basis*, (c) as to *use*.

F. Referring to the outline of phrases, Article 81, illustrate: —

adf, bdf, cdf; aef, bef, cef;
adg, bdg, cdg; aeg, beg, ceg;
adh, bdh, cdh; aeh, beh, ceh.

(1) Define a *clause*. (2) Illustrate. (3) Distinguish a *clause* from a *phrase*. (4) Show which may be contained in the other. (5) Name, define, and illustrate the kinds of clauses (a) as to *form*, (b) as to *use*.

G. Referring to the outline of clauses, Articles 93 and 94, illustrate: —

ad, bd, cd;
ae, be, ce;
af, bf, cf.

(1) Name and illustrate five uses of capital letters. (2) Name and illustrate one use of each of the marks most commonly used in punctuation.

PARTS OF SPEECH.

THE NOUN.

115. Having made a general examination of the sentence as a whole, we are now ready for a more thorough investigation of each of the **Parts of Speech** that form it. We shall begin with the **Noun**.

116. A **Noun** is the name of an object; as, *Kate, James, Columbus, Brooklyn, water, farmer, angel, world, mind, flock, thought, love, brightness, Mary Jane Porter.*

(a) Any word, sign, phrase, or clause, may be used as a noun; as, +, —, ×, and ÷ are mathematical signs. There was Tom with his "*How do you do?*" and "*What can I do for you?*"

Such expressions have the uses of nouns only so far as their relation to other words is concerned, but they are rather *things* than *names of things*. So upon this ground there may be objection to calling them nouns, but there can be no objection to calling them *substantives*.

A **Substantive** is any word or combination of words that may stand as the subject of a verb.

CLASSES OF NOUNS.

117. There are two ways of naming any object: —

(1) We may give it a name merely to denote the class to which it belongs; as, *boy, planet, city, river, people, state*, — **Common or Class Name**.

(2) We may give it a name that will distinguish it from others of its class; as, *George, Mars, London, Orinoco, English, Ohio*, — **Particular or Individual Name**.

118. We have, therefore, two general classes of Nouns, — **Common** and **Proper**.

119. *A Common Noun is a name given to an object merely to denote the class to which it belongs; as, hunter, woman, mountains, book.*

120. *A Proper Noun is a name given to an object to distinguish it from others of its class; as, Daniel Boone, Queen Victoria, Rockies, Standard Dictionary.*

(a) It may readily be seen that a noun usually proper may become common, and that a noun usually common may become proper. In the sentence, "*Daniel Webster* was a great statesman," *Daniel Webster* is a *proper noun*, used to distinguish one particular man from all other men; but when we say, "Where are the *Daniel Websters* of to-day?" *Daniel Webster* is used to name a class to which may be admitted any one having certain of Webster's characteristics; it is therefore a class name or *common noun*. And in the sentence, "I saw an old *man*," *man* is a *common noun*, used merely to denote the class to which the object belongs; but when the rude boy says, "*The Old Man* knows nothing about it," he has very improperly used a *proper noun*. *The Old Man* here denotes a particular person, the boy's father. We may say then, —

(1) *A proper noun becomes common when it ceases to distinguish its object from others of the same class; as, "the Cæsars," "the Ciceros," "the Beethovens." Such expressions are the same as "the warriors," "the orators," "the musicians." "Some mute inglorious Milton here may rest." "Bolivar was the Washington of South America." "He may succeed tolerably, but he is neither a Solomon nor a Samson."*

(2) *A common noun becomes proper when it is used to distinguish any particular object from others of the same class; as, "Boatman, do not tarry."*

(a) A common noun has meaning and can be defined. A proper noun is merely a symbol, or sign, of an object; it is without meaning and cannot therefore be defined. At first a proper noun has a meaning, on account of which it is selected to represent its object; but the signification is soon lost.

(b) Our language has more than 40,000 common nouns, and the number may be increased as new classes of objects are formed. We have

almost an unlimited number of proper nouns. There are more than 80,000 names of places alone.

(c) Two or more words are often used to form one name; as, *New York City*, *Webster's International Dictionary*, *Dr. David Starr Jordan*. Parse such combinations as single nouns.

(d) It is often difficult to distinguish a common from a proper noun. In "*Sunday follows Saturday*," and "*Mercury, Venus, and Earth* are planets," the italicized nouns are proper; but in "*He preaches every Sunday*," and "*The sun shines on the earth*," they are common. (Let the pupil show why by applying the definitions of common and proper nouns.)

121. The Proper Noun has no subclasses. The Common Noun may, for convenience, be divided into three subclasses, Collective, Abstract, and Class.

(a) All verbal nouns are abstract.

A Collective Noun is one whose singular form may represent a group of objects; as, *flock, herd, swarm*.

(a) A collective noun always represents a group of *animate* objects. Such nouns as *pile, heap, and bunch*, although they suggest collections of objects, are not *collective*.

(b) A collective noun may refer to its object in either of two ways:—

(1) *Singly, separately, individually;*

(2) *Collectively, as one unit, one whole* in which the individuals are lost sight of.

In the first use, the gender of the noun is determined by the sex of the objects represented, and the verb and pronoun referring to it should be plural; as, "*Your club have silver buckles on their caps*." In the second of these uses, the collective noun is of the neuter gender; it would therefore require a singular verb, and a singular, neuter pronoun; as, "*Your club beats ours every time it tries*."

This is a very important distinction. No student can speak with assurance till he has mastered it.

(c) When a collective noun is pluralized, it usually becomes a class noun of the neuter gender; as, "*There were seven or eight swarms*." Here the individuals are lost sight of. But a collective noun may be used in the plural number so as to refer to the individuals; as, "*All day the regiments were calling on their commander*." "*The herds all wear silver bells on their necks*."

122. *An Abstract Noun is the name of an object conceived as a quality of another object ; as, the softness of velvet, the drunkenness of the city, the honesty of the man.*

(a) The following are a few of our abstract nouns : *Time, space, life, death, hope, virtue, wisdom, magnitude, disease, war, peace, government, youth, goodness, happiness, beauty, sorrow, murder, revenge, cold, heat, whiteness, softness, hardness, brightness, darkness, motion, rest, flight, silence, existence, height, depth, growth, custom, fashion, strife, honor, glory, industry, economy, indolence, grandeur, religion, knowledge, honesty, deception, drunkenness, poverty, destiny, ambition, power.* To these must be added all names of actions.

(b) It must not be understood that such words are *always abstract nouns*. Any one of them may be used in either of two ways :—

(1) *To name an attribute of an object ;*

(2) *To name an object as having attributes.*

In the first of these uses it is an *abstract noun* ; as, “ *His disease was fatal,* ” “ *Your silence is my answer.* ” In the second use it is a mere *class noun*, or, as it is often more appropriately called, a *concrete noun* ; as, “ *Disease is to be dreaded,* ” “ *Silence is sometimes more eloquent than speech,* ” “ *She is a beauty,* ” “ *Death comes to us all alike.* ”

123. *Class Nouns are all those not included in the other divisions ; as, girl, man, house, knife.*

124.

PROPERTIES OF NOUNS.

(1) *I, Theodore Roosevelt,* do issue this proclamation.

(2) *Theodore Roosevelt,* you are President.

(3) The President is *Theodore Roosevelt.*

(4) One good *book* is better than many bad *books.*

(5) A *boy* and a *girl* tore the *child's hat.*

125. By observing the italicized words in these five sentences, we may see :—

First,—Nouns may denote the *speaker*, the *person spoken to*, or the *object spoken of*, as the noun, *Theodore Roosevelt*, does, respectively, in (1), (2), and (3). *This property is called Person.*

Second, — A noun may stand for *one object* or for *more than one*; as *book* and *books* in (4). This property is called **Number**.

Third, — A noun may denote an *object of the male sex*, an *object of the female sex*, an *object with sex not definitely specified*, or an *object without sex*. This property is **Gender**.

Fourth, — A noun may stand in any one of several different *relations to the part of the sentence that governs it*. For example, it may be the *subject of a finite verb*, like *President* in (3), *book* in (4), and *boy* and *girl* in (5). This is called a *Nominative Relation*. It may be the *object of a verb*, like *proclamation* in (1), and *hat* in (5). This is called an *Objective Relation*. Also, it may *limit another noun so as to denote possession*. This is called a *Possessive Relation*. This property, depending upon the relation of a noun to the part of the sentence that governs it, is **Case**.

(a) Only the simplest form of each relation is given here. There are several nominative constructions, several objective constructions, and three possessive constructions.

(b) The term *Nominative* does not appear to be a very appropriate one. It is retained because universally used.

(c) All these properties, *Person*, *Number*, *Gender*, and *Case*, belong to both *Nouns* and *Pronouns*.

(d) It will be observed that our nouns are not inflected for *Person*, which is shown by the noun's position in the sentence; and not for *Case*, except to denote the possessive. They are inflected for *Number* and *Gender*.

126. Nouns, then, have four properties: **Person**, **Number**, **Gender**, **Case**.

PERSON.

127. *Person* is the property of the noun that indicates whether it represents the speaker, the person spoken to, or the object spoken of. Hence, there are three persons: the *First*, which denotes the speaker; the *Second*, the person spoken to; and the *Third*, the object spoken of.

Person in nouns is indicated by their *use* and not by a change in form. "I, *Henry Anderson*, am guilty." "*Henry Anderson*, you are a thief." "*Henry Anderson* stole the horse."

- (a) Most nouns are of the third person.
- (b) All predicate nouns are of the third person.
- (c) The first and second persons belong only to names of persons, or of other objects personified.
- (d) A noun of the first person is found in no other construction than that of apposition with a pronoun of the first person; and in the *nominative absolute by subscription*.
- (e) A noun of the second person can have but two constructions: *apposition with a pronoun of the second person*, and *nominative absolute by direct address*.

NUMBER.

128. *Number is that property used to show whether the noun represents one object, or more than one.*

129. There are two numbers: the *singular*, denoting one, as *box, child, star*; and the *plural*, denoting more than one, as *boxes, children, stars*.

FORMATION OF THE PLURAL.

130. Nouns form their plurals *by ordinary or terminal inflection or by a radical or root change*.

131. (1) By Terminal Inflection: — *Most nouns form their plurals by suffixing s or es*; as, *book, books*; *hat, hats*; *apple, apples*; *pin, pins*; *flower, flowers*; *church, churches*; *bench, benches*; *kiss, kisses*.

Euphony determines whether *s* or *es* is to be suffixed. The following classes of nouns generally suffix *es* to the singular: —

(a) Nouns ending in *ch* (soft), *s*, *sh*, *x*, or *z*, and some nouns in *o*, preceded by a consonant: *trench, trenches*; *miss, misses*; *blush, blushes*; *tax, taxes*; *topaz, topazes*; *motto, mottoes*.

(b) Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant, after changing *y* into *i*: *glory, glories*; *story, stories*; *lady, ladies*.

In *Old English* we find such words written *glorie*, *storie*, *ladie*, with *s* suffixed for the plurals. Hence, when we say, "Change *y* into *ie*," we mean that *ie* has been changed into *y*.

(c) A few nouns ending in *f* or *fe*, after *f* or *fe* has been changed into *v*: *thief*, *thieves*; *wife*, *wives*; *life*, *lives*; *wolf*, *wolves*.

(2) **By Radical Change**: — *A few nouns form their plurals by radical change*; that is, by a modification of the vowel sound of the singular: *man*, *men*; *woman*, *women*; *goose*, *geese*; *tooth*, *teeth*; *mouse*, *mice*; *louse*, *lice*.

PECULIARITIES OF NUMBER.

(a) Singular and Plural the Same: —

A few nouns have the same form for the plural as for the singular: *sheep*, *deer*, *grouse*, *series*, *salmon*, *heathen*.

The number of such a noun must be determined from some other part of the sentence; thus, "The *sheep* was in the garden." "The *sheep* were in the garden." "I bought one *sheep*." "I bought five *sheep*."

(b) Double Plurals: —

(1) Some nouns have double plurals — one English and one foreign, or two English plurals *with different significations*: —

SINGULAR.	FIRST PLURAL.	SECOND PLURAL.
Brother,	Brothers (by birth),	Brethren (community).
Cloth,	Cloths (kinds of cloth),	Clothes (garments).
Cow,	Cows (individuals),	Kine (a herd).
Die,	Dies (for stamping),	Dice (for gaming).
Fish,	Fishes (individuals),	Fish (in aggregate).
Fowl,	Fowls (individuals),	Fowl (the species).
Genius,	Geniuses (men),	Genii (spirits).
Index,	Indexes (of books),	Indices (in algebra).
Medium,	Mediums (persons),	Media (things).
Memorandum,	Memorandums (books),	Memoranda (notes).
Pea,	Peas (individuals),	Pease (in aggregate).
Penny,	Pennies (by number),	Pence (by value).
Shot,	Shots (discharges),	Shot (in aggregate).
Staff,	Staffs (military),	Staves (sticks).

(2) Another class of nouns from foreign languages has double plurals *with the same meanings* : —

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	
	<i>English.</i>	<i>Foreign.</i>
Bandit (Italian),	Bandits,	Banditti.
Cherub (Hebrew),	Cherubs,	Cherubim.
Dogma (Greek),	Dogmas,	Dogmata.
Formula (Latin),	Formulas,	Formulæ.

Except in technical or scientific language the English plurals are generally to be preferred.

(c) **Plurals only** : —

Some nouns are found only in the plural : —

annals	entrails	scissors
antipodes	nuptials	shears
breeches	pantaloons	tongs
drawers	pincers	victuals
dregs	scales	vitals

(d) **Plurals as Singulars** : —

Another class of nouns has the plural form with the singular signification ; as, *means, molasses, news, odds, pains, riches, tidings, amends, gallows, thanks*, etc.

Also, *politics, ethics, optics, mathematics, physics*, and some others represent Greek plurals, but are regarded as singular. Thus, " *Mathematics is (not are) the science of quantity.*" " *Ethics is (not are) the science of duty.*"

(e) **Singulars only** : —

Many abstract nouns have no plurals ; as, *decorum, harshness, meekness, prudence, tenacity*, etc.

(f) **Plural of Proper Nouns** : —

Proper nouns generally form their plurals by adding *s* or *es*. But as to those ending in *y*, usage is unsettled ; some good writers add *s*, others drop *y* and add *ies* ; as, *Mary, Marys*, or *Maries* ; *Story, Storys*, or *Stories* ; *Henry, Henrys*, or *Henries* ; *Tully, Tullys*, or *Tullies*.

(g) The plurals of letters, marks, figures, and signs are formed by adding the *apostrophe* and *s* ('s); as, "You must dot your *i*'s and cross your *t*'s." "We prove addition by casting out the 9's." "At the bottom of the page were placed *'s, -'s, +'s, and □'s."

(h) The plural of compound words is generally formed by pluralizing the part of the word that is described by the rest; as, mouse-traps, ox-carts, brothers-in-law, sisters-in-law, billet-doux, courts-martial, aids-de-camp, cupfuls, spoonfuls, coachfuls, wagon-loads, commanders-in-chief.

A few compound words pluralize both parts: *men-servants*, *women-servants*, *knights-templars* (or *knights-templar*).

PLURALS OF PROPER NAMES.

132. Plural of proper names preceded by titles is formed by pluralizing either the name or the title, but never both.

RULES.

(1) If the title is *Mrs.*, or is preceded by a numeral, the name is always pluralized: "The *Mrs. Browns*." "The two *Mrs. Barlows*." "The two *Miss Scotts* had been gathering flowers." — *Irving*.

(2) The title should always be pluralized when it is *Mister*, *Miss*, *Doctor*, *Professor*, etc., not preceded by a numeral: "The *Messrs Johnson*." "The *Misses Dill*." "The *Drs. Bank*."

(a) On this point usage is somewhat unsettled. In speaking of two or more single ladies of the same name many good writers pluralize the title, many the name, and some both the title and the name. Perhaps most grammarians prefer to pluralize the *name*, while in polite literature we most commonly find the title made plural. In this case, as in all others, *usage*, and not the grammarians, will prevail; and finally, I believe, it will become the universal custom to pluralize only the titles of such terms.

(b) Grammarians tell us that "the true law of the language requires that the *s* be affixed to the *noun* and not to the title;" but the first and greatest of all demands upon language is that it express clearly the thought intended. Now if we say "I saw the *Miss Banks*," it cannot be determined whether we mean one lady named "Banks" or two named "Bank."

"I called at the office of Dr. Motts," would probably imply *one* doctor named "Motts," but there are really *two* named "Mott." But if we say, "I saw the Misses Bank," and "called at the office of Drs. Mott," there is no possibility of ambiguity. Then the law next in importance, that of *analogy*, would require that *Mister, Professor*, and similar titles should be pluralized, and not the name.

GENDER.

133. As already pointed out, nouns may express the several relations their objects bear to sex. This property is **Gender**.

134. Nouns may represent objects of the male sex. Such nouns are of the **Masculine Gender**.

135. Nouns may represent objects of the female sex. They are of the **Feminine Gender**.

136. Nouns may represent objects without sex. They are of the **Neuter Gender**.

137. Nouns may represent objects with sex not definitely specified. They are of the **Common Gender**.

138. *Gender is the property of a noun or pronoun that expresses the relation of its object to sex.*

(a) Instead of *noun* and *pronoun* the word *substantive* will be used.

139. **A Substantive of the Masculine Gender represents a male object ; as, boy, uncle, bachelor, Joseph.**

140. **A Substantive of the Feminine Gender represents a female object ; as, girl, aunt, maid, Josephine.**

(a) When inanimate objects are personified — conceived as persons — they may be expressed by masculine and feminine nouns, as, "The *sun* dispenses *his* light ;" "The *ship* spread *her* sails."

The *moon* looks down on old *Cronest* ;

She mellowes the shades on *his* shaggy breast. — DRAKE.

(b) In the lowest degrees of personification, in which an object is conceived as manifesting only a minor characteristic of a person, its noun and pronoun remain neuter ; as, "The gentle *brooklet* hastens to *its* home in the sea."

141. A Substantive of the Neuter Gender represents an object without sex ; as, book, stump, table, snow.

(a) In speaking of children and small animals the sex is often disregarded. The nouns and pronouns representing such objects should then be called neuter ; as : —

“A simple child that lightly draws its breath.” — *Wordsworth*.

“The robin is looking for its mate.”

142. A Substantive of the Common Gender represents an object with sex not definitely specified, as child, parent, persons, children.

(a) A substantive is of the common gender when it represents either a single object of unspecified sex or a number of objects that may differ in sex.

143. Nouns may distinguish the sex of their objects in three ways, or three kinds of Inflection: —

(1) BY DIFFERENT WORDS.

<i>Mas.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Mas.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>
Boy,	Girl.	Lad,	Lass.
Brother,	Sister.	Man,	Woman.
Drake,	Duck.	Son,	Daughter.
Father,	Mother.	Uncle,	Aunt.
Gander,	Goose.		

(2) BY DIFFERENT TERMINATIONS.

<i>Mas.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Mas.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>
Abbot,	Abbess.	Enchanter,	Enchantress.
Actor,	Actress.	Lion,	Lioness.
Baron,	Baroness.	Prince,	Princess.

(a) Most words of this class are appellations of office, occupation, or rank, and the feminine generally ends in *ess* or *trix*.

(b) There are not now so many feminines in *ess* as there were in earlier stages of our language. At present the best usage regards such terms as *doctor, author, writer, engraver*, as applicable both to men and to women.

(3) BY PREFIXES AND SUFFIXES.

He-bear,	She-bear.
Man-servant,	Maid-servant.
Mr. Jones,	{ Miss Jones.
	{ Mrs. Jones.

144. Remarks on Gender.—(a) If the substantive itself does not show the relation of its object to sex, determine its gender if possible from other words in the context. “The *pupil* likes the *teacher*.” “*You* hurt *me*” (common gender). “*I*, your uncle, will help *you*, *Bernice*” (*I* is masculine; and *you*, feminine). “The *child* is sick” (common). “The *child* broke her doll” (feminine). “The *child* lost his sled” (masculine). “The *child* sleeps in its cradle” (neuter).

(b) The gender of a collective noun is neuter when it represents a collection of objects acting as *one whole*; as, “*Congress* enacted the following laws before *it* adjourned.” “The *mob*, in *its* fury, burned the town.”

But, when it represents a collection of objects acting separately, its gender is determined by the sex of the objects represented; as, “The fair *sex*, whose task is not to mingle in the labors of public life, have *their* own part assigned *them* to act.”

Here *sex* and the three pronouns representing it are feminine. But in “The *jury* do not agree in *their* opinions,” *jury* and the pronoun *their* are masculine.

When collective nouns are pluralized they usually become *class* nouns in the *neuter* gender; as, “The *herds* when counted numbered fifty-four.” “We saw five *flocks*.” Here the individuals are lost sight of, and each collection becomes an individual object. But a collective noun may be used in the plural so as to refer to the individual object. Its gender then depends upon the sex of the individuals. “All the *flocks* and *herds* were quietly grazing upon the green pastures.” The action spoken of was not performed by the *groups* acting as so many *wholes*, but by the individual objects. *Herds* and *flocks* are collective nouns in the plural number and common gender.

(c) Bear well in mind the distinction between gender and sex. Sex belongs to objects, gender to nouns and pronouns. We never speak of a *man* of the masculine gender, nor of a *noun* of the male sex.

(d) Some grammarians reject “common gender” as implying an absurdity, since there can be no such thing as an object of *common sex*. This, however, is but the common blunder which always follows an attempt to be hypercritical without understanding the subject discussed. The confusion arises from confounding “gender” and “sex.” *Sex* is a characteristic belonging to *some objects*. *Gender* is a property belonging to *all nouns*. In one of our popular grammars may be found this expression: “Gender is sometimes ascribed to inanimate objects,” and similar expressions may be found in many other grammars. This is a carelessness in expression which is confusing to the learner. There is no such thing as an *object* of the *feminine gender*, or a *noun* of the

female sex. And although there may not be an *object of common sex*, we need not for that reason reject the term *common gender*. We should be compelled to reject the term *man* for the same reason. We say, "*Man is mortal*," and not even a grammarian wishes to criticise it, but who ever saw "*man*"? We have *a man*, and *the man*, and *this man*, and *that man*, and thousands and millions of *men*, but we explore the universe for such a material object as *man*. I see no valid objection to the term *common gender*.

(e) **Neuter gender** *has been objected to on the same ground, that since the object represented has no sex, the noun therefore has no gender*, but this is the same confounding of *gender* and *sex*. When a noun tells us anything, no matter what, concerning the relation of its object to sex, the property by which it does it, is *gender*. The nouns *John* and *tree* tell different things concerning sex; but each tells something, and each therefore has *gender*. *John* tells us that its object is of the male sex, and *tree* tells us that its object is without sex. One noun is as much without gender as the other, because neither tells any more than the other concerning sex. It has been proposed to substitute the term *no gender* for *neuter gender*; but, as may be seen from the above, such nouns *do have gender*, and we must therefore have a name for it. I do not contend for the terms *neuter gender* and *common gender*. Unfortunately for us they are not good terms, but they are the best ever suggested; much better than *undetermined gender* and *no gender*. The gender of a noun is just as much *determined* when it indicates that the sex of the object is undetermined as when it indicates that the object is male or female. And a noun has gender just as much when it indicates that its object is without sex as when it specifies the sex that the object has.

Neuter gender literally construed would mean *neither gender*, but it has never been so intended by grammarians. It is simply the best term we can get to apply to those nouns that represent objects of neither sex. It is certainly not true that such nouns have *no gender*; but if it were, they would be in that respect like adverbs and interjections, and it would not be necessary to speak of gender at all.

(f) We may miss most of our difficulties here by keeping in mind that **we parse substantives, not objects.**

CASE.

145. Nominative Case. — As may be seen from the following sentences, a substantive may stand in any one of several relations to the expression that governs it. Observe both the nouns and the pronouns.

- (1) *George* came. *I* came.
- (2) It is *George*. It is *I*.
- (3) The boy, *George*, came. The boy, *I*, came.

146. In (1) *George* and *I* are each the *subject of the finite verb, came*. In (2) they are each the *complement of the finite copula, is*. In (3) each is *in apposition with boy*, which is the subject of a finite verb.

147. These three relations are grouped together and called **dependent nominative constructions**. *A substantive in a dependent nominative construction is in the Nominative Case.*

148. The **Nominative Case** *is the case a substantive has when it is used in a dependent nominative construction.*

149. The **Dependent Nominative Constructions** are : —

- (1) *Subject of a finite verb ; as : —*

Wilson is my lawyer.
Henry wrote the letter.
You have my consent.
We shall wait for him.

- (2) *Complement of a copulative verb whose subject is nominative ; as : —*

I am a student.
Martha is a musician.
They are detectives.
She was not *I*.
They were *we*.
We shall be learners.
The men have been good citizens.
We were thought to be *they*.
They were supposed to be *we*.

- (3) *In apposition with a nominative substantive ; as : —*

Your brother, *Paul*, is here.
 He is your brother, *Paul*.
I, your brother, plead with you.
 Your brother, *I*, pleads with you.

150. All verbs are finite verbs except Infinitives and Participles. The beginner may distinguish a finite verb by finding its present form and observing whether or not it changes as its subject is changed in person or number. For example, take the verb in the last two sentences. Its present form is *plead* when its subject is *I*, but it is *pleads* when its subject is changed to the third person noun, *brother*. It is therefore a finite verb. Also, *is* is the present form required when its subject is in the third person singular, but it changes to *am* when its subject is in the first person singular, and to *are* when its subject is in the second person singular or in the first, second, or third person plural. These, therefore, are *finite verbs*, while the corresponding infinitives, *to plead* and *to be*, and the corresponding participles, *pleading* and *being*, are *infinite verbs*. We shall learn later that the subject of an infinitive is commonly in the objective case and the subject of a participle is commonly in the possessive case or nominative absolute.

151. A noun used as the complement of a copulative verb is commonly called a Predicate Noun. This construction applies chiefly to the substantive completing a *pure copula*, that is, some finite form of the verb *to be* — *am, is, be, are, was, were, been*. The general rule is: *A substantive completing a copulative verb is in the same case as its subject.* We shall see later that it applies to the objective case and to the absolute as well as to the nominative.

(a) **An exception to the rule** must be remembered: *A substantive is in the nominative case when it is the complement of a copulative participle whose subject is possessive.*

152. A substantive is in apposition when, without a connecting element, it modifies another in the same case and of the same signification. Observe that *the appositive term is the one that explains the other*. Apposition applies to all cases. Be careful to distinguish a substantive in

apposition, as "Jones, the *lawyer*, came," from one used as the complement of a copulative verb, as "Jones is a *lawyer*." An appositive is in the same case as the substantive it modifies, and it means the same. A substantive used as the complement of a copulative verb is in the same case as its subject and means the same. So far they resemble. This is their difference: *A predicate noun has, and an appositive has not, a connecting element to join it to the substantive it explains.*

153. Nominative Absolute Case. — *When a noun or pronoun is used independently, when it is the subject or attributive complement of a participle that is used independently, or when it is in apposition with another substantive so used, it is in the Nominative Absolute Case.*

154. The Nominative Absolute Constructions are : —

(1) *By direct address : —*

William, come here.

(2) *By exclamation : —*

Good old England !

(3) *By pleonasm : —*

Our fathers, where are they ?

(4) *By inscription : —*

Dewey's Psychology.

(5) *Subject of an independent participle : —*

Wilson having overbid us, we failed to get the horse.

(6) *Complement of an independent copulative participle : —*

Philip being our doctor, we were hopeful.

(7) *In apposition : —*

Wilson, the merchant, having overbid us, we failed to get the horse.

(a) A substantive used in any of these constructions is in the nominative absolute case.

(b) A substantive in any one of the first six constructions may have another in apposition with it. *Illustrate.*

(c) Pleonasm is the independent use of a substantive before a sentence that makes a statement or asks a question about the object it expresses; as:—

These problems, they are troublesome.

The *problems*, how many can you solve?

Pleonasm is to be avoided except when we wish to express, along with the *thought* of an object, the *emotion* it produces.

(d) There are several forms of inscription, such as superscriptions, subscriptions, and isolated names written on coins, signs, and monuments.

155. Possessive Case. — *When a noun or pronoun is used in a possessive construction it is in the Possessive Case.*

156. The Possessive Constructions are:—

(1) *Limiting a noun of different signification; as,*

Mary's bonnet, *Paul's* pony, *John's* book, *Brown's* philosophy.

(2) *Limiting a noun of same signification = apposition; as,*

Her Majesty, *Queen Victoria's* government.

(3) *Subject of a participle that has a dependent substantive use; as,*

John's whispering to me annoyed her.

Your speaking good French secured your appointment.

(a) The possessive may denote the *owner* of an object, as *Brown's* corn; the *author*, as *Hill's* Rhetoric; the *kind*, *men's* clothing; the location, as *Indiana's* oil-fields; the *origin*, as the *sun's* rays.

TO FORM THE POSSESSIVE.

157. Singular nouns and plurals not ending in *s* form their possessive by annexing the 's to the nominative; as,

The *child's* book, The *children's* books, The *men's* hats.

158. **Plurals ending in s** form their possessive by annexing only the apostrophe ; as,

Boys' sports, Birds' wings, Banks' charters.

(a) The *'s* is a contraction of the old English genitive ending *es* or *is*. "In *widowes habite*," "The *Kingis crowne*."—*Chaucer*.

(b) **For euphony the possessive sign is sometimes omitted** from singular nouns that end with an *s*-sound ; as, "*Xerxes' army*," "*Moses' law*," "*Socrates' philosophy*," "*Demosthenes' orations*"; but it is better in most cases to annex the *s*, also ; as "*Dennis's works*."—*Pope*. "*Louis's reign*."—*Macaulay*. "*Charles's affairs*."—*Prescott*. The best usage sanctions the forms *Mrs. Hemans's*, *Mr. Banks's*, *James's*, *witnesses's*, etc. Without the *s*, there would be no distinction, in spoken language, between *Mr. Bank's* and *Mr. Banks'* ; *Miss Round's* and *Miss Rounds'*. The *s* should always be used in spoken language and in prose unless it brings together *too many* hissing sounds, and then perhaps the possession may be much more elegantly expressed by using of before the *objective* ; as, "The army of Xerxes," "The law of Moses," "The philosophy of Socrates," "The orations of Demosthenes." As well-established exceptions to the statement just made, however, we have, "For Jesus' sake," "For goodness' sake," "For conscience' sake."

(c) The possessive, singular or plural, of such nouns as *deer* and *sheep* is formed by annexing *'s* to the nominative. If the noun's number needs to be shown, some other part of the sentence must do it.

(d) **When a pair or series of nouns implying common possession** are used, the possessive sign is annexed only to the one immediately preceding the name limited ; as, "*Wade & Cash's furniture store*," "*Reed & Kellogg's Grammar* is made by *Clark & Maynard's Publishing House*," "*Lee & Shepherd's shoe store*," etc.

(e) **When a pair or series of nouns not implying common possession** are used, the sign is annexed to each, and the name limited by the last possessive is understood before each of the others ; as, *Day's* and *Fowler's Logic* " (not *Logics*, unless each is the author of two or more works on that subject), "*Swinton's* and *McGuffey's Readers*" = *Swinton's Readers* and *McGuffey's Readers*.

(f) **In compound terms** the possessive sign is annexed to the last ; as, "The *court-martial's* decisions," "The *courts-martial's* decisions," (Better, "Decisions of the courts-martial.")

(g) **When a noun in the possessive is limited by a noun in apposition with it, by a descriptive phrase, or by a pronominal adjective**, the sign is annexed to the term immediately preceding the noun limited ; as, "The emperor *Napoleon's* grave," "The secretary of the

Navy's report," "What I do is no one *else's* business." When a proper noun is explained by a common noun in apposition with it, and when the limited noun is omitted, the possessive sign may be annexed to either the common or the proper noun, but never to both; as, "We stopped at *Acton's*, the jeweller," or, "We stopped at Acton, the *jeweller's*."

(h) **The subject of a participle** having a dependent substantive use must be put in the possessive case. Otherwise the meaning of the sentence is changed. The *writer's* being a scholar is not doubted, and No one ever heard of that *man's* running for office, do not mean the same as, The writer being a scholar is not doubted, and, No one ever heard of that man running for office.

(i) **The possessive is the only case** an English noun distinguishes by its form.

159. Objective Case. — *A substantive having an objective construction is in the Objective Case.*

160. The Objective Constructions are,—

(1) *Object of a transitive verb*; as:—

God made the *world*. God made *us*.

(2) *Object of a preposition*; as:—

She spoke to her *sister*. She spoke to *me*.

(3) *Subject of an infinitive*; as:—

He wants his *brother* to come. He wants *me* to come.

(4) *Complement of an infinitive copula whose subject is objective*; as:—

He thought me to be your *sister*. He thought me to be *her*.

(5) *In apposition*; as:—

I saw George, the *boy* you spoke of.
I saw George, *him* you spoke of.

161. A substantive in any of the first four constructions may have another in apposition with it. *Illustrate.* Apposition applies to all the cases. *Illustrate.*

162. Direct Object. — The object of an active transitive verb is called the *direct object*; as,

Henry buys *cattle*.
The men will cut the *grass*.
He likes *you* and *me*.

The *direct object* corresponds closely but not completely with the Latin *accusative*. It is therefore sometimes called the *accusative objective*.

163. The Object of an Intransitive Verb is sometimes mentioned by indiscriminating students as if there could be such a thing. But there cannot. A word cannot be the object of an intransitive verb. A verb that is often intransitive may be used so as to govern an object, but when so used it is transitive.

The rain *falls* on the just and the unjust. (Intransitive.)
The woodman *falls* the trees. (Transitive.)

164. A Cognate Objective or Accusative is a direct object similar in signification to the verb; as:—

He lived a noble *life*.

Life is the direct object of *lived*. It is called a *cognate objective*. There are a few verbs, like *live*, that seldom take any but a *cognate object*.

165. The Object of a Preposition is in the objective case. The student should read over carefully a list of prepositions and construct a sentence in which each governs a noun or pronoun. When there is doubt about the case of a noun following a preposition, put a pronoun in the noun's place and observe the form it takes. In "It is for *George*," we may easily see that *George* is objective, by noticing the substituted pronouns in,

It is for <i>me</i> .	It is for <i>him</i> .
It is for <i>us</i> .	It is for <i>them</i> .

Also, if there is a question as to whether the case of *George* is determined by the preposition *for* or the verb *is*, it may be answered by omitting the preposition. Then we have "It is *George*," in which *George* is nominative, as may be shown by substituting pronouns as above : —

It is <i>I</i> .	It is <i>he</i> .
It is <i>we</i> .	It is <i>they</i> .

166. The Indirect Object. — A transitive verb is often followed by two objectives of different significations, — a *direct object*, denoting that upon which the action of the verb directly terminates, and an *indirect object*, denoting a different thing that is also affected, but indirectly, by the same action ; as : —

My teacher gave *me* a book.

The act of giving terminated directly upon the book ; *book* is therefore the *direct object*. But the same act affected *me* also ; *me* is for this reason often spoken of as the *indirect object*. *All these so-called indirect objects should be parsed as the object of a preposition, usually to or for, always clearly implied and sometimes expressed.* Thus : —

Give <i>him</i> your pencil	= Give your pencil to <i>him</i> .
I sent my <i>friend</i> a present	= I sent a present to my <i>friend</i> .
She made the <i>girl</i> a dress	= She made a dress for the <i>girl</i> .
I asked the <i>boy</i> a question	= I asked a question to the <i>boy</i> .

The principal verbs that are followed by indirect objects are *allow, ask, bring, buy, get, give, leave, lend, make, offer, pass, pay, present, promise, refuse, send, show, sing, teach, tell, throw, and write*.

The indirect objective corresponds closely to the Latin *dative*.

167. When the verb *teach*, meaning either *to give instruction to* or *to give instruction in*, is followed by two

objectives, either may be parsed as the *direct object*, and the other as the *object of a preposition* to be supplied. Thus : —

“ He teaches me Algebra,”

may be equivalent to either,

“ He teaches Algebra to me,” or “ He teaches me in Algebra.”

168. The Adverbial Objective or Objective without a Governing Word. — Nouns used after intransitive verbs and adjectives, to denote *time*, *distance*, *measure*, *value*, and similar ideas, are often in the objective case without a governing word expressed ; as : —

“ Cowards die many *times* before their deaths.”

“ Full *fathom* five thy father lies.”

We walked three *miles*.

The river is a thousand *yards* wider.

The cannons thundered all *night*.

Such substantives are called *adverbial objectives*. *They must be parsed as the objects of prepositions not expressed*, for the verbs are intransitive, and adjectives have no governing power over the case of substantives. Sometimes the preposition is clearly implied. In the last sentence it is *during* ; in the next to the last it is *by* ; in the first it may be *on*, *at*, or *in*. In such sentences as the second and third no preposition can be supplied that adequately expresses the relation. Our language does not yet have the proper preposition, and it may never have. But the mind thinks the relation, and precisely that kind of relation that is expressed only by a preposition. Of course Abbott is right when he tells us that in early English no prepositions were inserted before such objectives. But the relation was always thought precisely as it is now ; and I should rather parse such words as the objects of prepositions we are very much in need of but

do not yet have, than to say they are objective without governing words. This I must admit is rather a notable case of *a thing exerting an influence centuries before it is born*; but it is by no means an unnatural case, not even an unusual one.

169. The Resultant or Factitive Object. — A transitive verb is often followed by two objectives of similar signification. The one expressing the receiver of the verb's action is the direct object. The other expresses the result of the verb's action, and is therefore called a *resultant object*; as:—

Cigarettes have made him an *idiot*.

We appointed her *leader*.

Simon he surnamed *Peter*.

Such words should be parsed as *resultant appositives*, — not objects of verbs but in apposition with the direct objects. *A verb cannot govern two objects not joined by a connective.* Since *resultant objects* always follow verbs signifying *to make*, they are sometimes called *factitive objects*.

170. The Objective Subject of an Infinitive. — Just as a finite verb takes its subject in the nominative case, so *an infinitive requires its subject to be in the objective case* unless it is also the subject of a finite verb; as:—

"We want *George* to go."

"We want *him* to go."

"They think *Iva* to be mistaken."

"They think *her* to be mistaken."

Some erroneously suppose that such words are governed by the preceding transitive verbs and not by the following infinitives. The fallacy of such a position becomes apparent when we observe that the case changes to nominative when the infinitive is replaced by a finite verb, although the preceding transitive verb remain unchanged; as:—

"We think *Iva* is mistaken," or "We think *she* is mistaken."

The construction is common in the Latin and Greek languages, and is recognized by all English grammarians deserving the name.

When the subject of an infinitive is also the subject of a finite verb, it is nominative; as:—

George wants to go. He wants to go.

171. The Objective Complement of an Infinitive Copula whose Subject is Objective.—The rule, correctly stated, is, “*A noun or pronoun used as the complement of a copulative verb is in the same case as its subject.*” To this rule there is the one exception, *When the subject of a copulative participle is possessive, its complement is nominative*; as:—

John's being a lawyer made his services valuable.

The rule itself applies to

The Nominative Case; as:—

We thought George was Tom.

We thought she was he.

The Nominative Absolute Case; as:—

George being a lawyer, we employed him.

George being he, we employed him.

The Objective Case; as:—

We thought George to be Tom.

We thought her to be him.

This construction also is common in other languages, and not to be dispensed with in English.

The complement of an infinitive copula is not always objective, but only when its subject is objective. Thus in

Henry tries to be a teacher,

You were thought to be he,

the complements are nominative.

172. Objective in Apposition.—*Apposition is the use of a substantive, without a connective element, to modify another*

in the same case and of the same signification. Apposition applies to

The Nominative Case:—

Peter, the *doctor*, came ;

The Nominative Absolute Case:—

Peter, the *doctor*, come here ;

The Possessive Case:—

Peter the *doctor's* horse is sick ;

The Objective Case:—

We sent for Peter, the *doctor*.

Observe that the explanatory term is the one in apposition.

173. The Object of a Passive Verb. — A verb in the passive voice cannot govern an object. Its subject represents the receiver of an action.

When the verb in all such sentences as,

“God called the *firmament* heaven,”

is changed to the passive voice, it becomes copulative, the direct object of the active becomes the subject of the passive, and the resultant object after the active becomes the attributive complement after the passive. Thus, in changing *called* to the passive voice, we have, “The *firmament* was called *heaven*,” in which, of course, both nouns are in the nominative case.

And when the verb in such sentences as,

“He gave [to] *me* a *dollar*,”

is changed to the passive voice, the direct object in the active should become the subject in the passive, and the indirect object would then remain the object of its preposition ; as : —

“A *dollar* was given [to] *me* by him.”

This is easy, and it is the way all grammarians would have it. But, unfortunately for the grammarians, good speakers and writers often make the nominative form of the indirect object the subject of the passive verb; as:—

“I was given a *dollar*.”

In such cases, the original direct object remains objective after the passive verb, but our trouble begins when we attempt to parse it. It cannot be the object of the passive verb, and there is no appropriate preposition that can be supplied. In such cases, about all we can say is, that the noun is *idiomatically objective*, or *objective without grammatical construction*, or again, *the object of a preposition we do not yet have, but greatly need*. Such a disposition is not entirely satisfactory. It does not bring perfect peace, but only such consolation as comes from the assurance that no one else is likely to do better.

174. Objective by Enallage.—By a figure of speech called *enallage* the subject of a participle is sometimes given the objective form when it should have the possessive. This usage should not be encouraged, for it always gives the sentence a meaning different from the one intended. Thus:—

“There is no harm in the man sitting on the counter,”

expresses an entirely different thought from

“There is no harm in the man’s sitting on the counter.”

What is the difference? When should each be used?

175. Declension of Nouns.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>Nominative.</i>	Boy.	Boys.
<i>Possessive.</i>	Boy’s.	Boys’.
<i>Objective.</i>	Boy.	Boys.

(a) It will be observed that English nouns have but little variation in form to distinguish their cases. Only the possessive has a distinct form.

PARSING OF NOUNS.

176. To parse any word is to give, in order, its part of speech, its classes and sub-classes, its properties, its government or construction, and the rule applying to its construction. Rules may commonly be referred to by number, but the teacher should often require them to be stated in full. Referring a construction to its appropriate rule exercises the same mental process of generalization as citing the proposition that authorizes a certain step in a geometrical demonstration.

177. Parsing affords a good opportunity to teach neatness, carefulness, and accuracy. Some of it may be oral, but most of it should be written in ink, with correct punctuation and capitals.

178. A reasonable amount of parsing is excellent, but it can be easily overdone. It is not nearly so helpful as exercises in constructing original sentences to illustrate specified constructions. But parsing is easier, and should always come first.

179. Model for Parsing Nouns.

- | | | |
|---------------|------------|------------------|
| 1. Species. | 4. Person. | 7. Case. |
| 2. Class. | 5. Number. | 8. Construction. |
| 3. Sub-class. | 6. Gender. | 9. Rule. |

(1) Wise *men* never waste *time*.

Men, n., com., class, third, plu., mas., nom., subj. of *waste*, R. I.

Time, n., com., class, third, sing., neut., obj., obj. of *waste*, R. IV.

(a) See Rules on page 234.

180. Parse the italicized nouns.

(1) Tender *men* sometimes have strong *wills*.

(2) The *beauty* of her *disposition* is its *cheerfulness*.

- (3) A bent *twig* makes a crooked *tree*.
- (4) *Water* seeks its *level*, and a *loafer* a *companion*.
- (5) *Boys*, set a high *price* on your *leisure moments*; they are *sands* of precious *gold*.
- (6) One *day* I ran a *mile* through the *woods*.
- (7) Give *John* your best *efforts* and his *father* will make your *brother* his *son's assistant*.
- (8) *Smith* was chosen *secretary* of the *class*.
- (9) The *club* wants *Charles* to be its *leader*.
- (10) *George* wishes to be our *leader*.

181. Review of Nouns.

- (1) Define a noun. (2) A substantive. (3) Name the classes of nouns. (4) Why do we have these classes? (5) Define each. (6) Explain and illustrate *when a proper noun becomes common*, and *when a common noun becomes proper*. (7) Name the properties of nouns and define each. (8) Explain the two general methods of forming plurals. (9) Make a talk on the plurals of proper names preceded by titles. (10) What genders do nouns have? (11) Distinguish carefully gender and sex. (12) Explain in full the gender of collective nouns. (13) Name the classes of substantives. (14) Name and illustrate the dependent nominative constructions. (15) Name and illustrate the nominative absolute constructions. (16) Name and illustrate the three possessive constructions. (17) Tell how the possessive is formed, singular and plural. (18) Name and illustrate each of the objective constructions. (19) Distinguish a noun in apposition from the complement of a copulative verb. (20) To what cases does apposition apply? (21) In what case is the complement of a copulative verb? (22) Explain in full and illustrate each of the following: (a) Direct object. (b) Object of an intransitive verb. (c) Cognate objective. (d) Object of a preposition. (e) Indirect object. (f) Verbs that govern two objects. (g) Adverbial objective or objective without a governing word. (h) Resultant object. (i) Objective subject of an infinitive. (j) Objective complement of an infinitive copula. (k) Objective in apposition. (l) Object of a passive verb. (m) Objective by enallage. (23) Show what is meant by the declension of nouns. (24) What use may be made of parsing?

THE PRONOUN.

182. (1) The man told *me* that *his* wife left *her* pen in *my* book.

(2) *Who* took the money *that you* had ?

183. We see that the italicized words in these sentences are used substantively without naming objects. Such words are *Pronouns*.

184. *A Pronoun is the part of speech that is used to designate an object without naming it.* Or,

185. *A Pronoun is a word used instead of a noun.*

CLASSES OF PRONOUNS.

186. Pronouns have three uses : —

(1) *To avoid the repetition of nouns ; as :—*

“ Alexander told Elizabeth that *she* might write *her* name in *her* book with *his* pen ” ; instead of “ Alexander told Elizabeth that Elizabeth might write Elizabeth’s name in Elizabeth’s book with Alexander’s pen.”

These are **Personal Pronouns**.

(2) *To ask a question ; as :—*

Who came ? *What* can she do ?

These are **Interrogative Pronouns**.

(3) *To join a modifying clause to an antecedent ; as :—*

The dog, *which* was a costly animal, caused his owner some anxiety.
This is the dog *that* worried the cat.

These are **Relative or Conjunctive Pronouns**.

187. We have, therefore, *three classes of pronouns*.

188. *A Personal Pronoun is one whose form shows its person ; as :—*

I or *we* is always *first person* ; *thou*, *you*, or *ye* is always *second person* ; *he*, *she*, or *it* is always *third person*.

189. An Interrogative Pronoun is one used as the interrogative word in a question; as:—

Who are you? *What* are you?

190. A Relative or Conjunctive Pronoun is one that joins a clause to its antecedent; as:—

My horse, *which* was sick, travelled slowly.

The horse *that* was sick died.

The woman, *who* was impulsive, quickly resented the criticism.

The woman *that* is impulsive needs time for regrets.

(a) The term "*conjunctive*" is much the better one. *Relative* is not very significant; it is retained only on account of its long standing in the grammars.

191. The Antecedent of a pronoun is the substantive for which the pronoun is used. It is usually a noun, as, *John* lost *his* pencil; but it may be a phrase, as, *To pay the debt, which* is the only honorable way out, will be difficult; or a clause, as, *That the clerk was dishonest, which* was hard for us to believe, has been proved; *He has given up his course of study* and now regrets it.

(a) The antecedent of a relative is sometimes another pronoun; as, *Who that* is strictly honest could make such a statement? *He that* is dishonest suspects every one else.

(b) Personal and relative pronouns follow their antecedents in sentences not inverted, but sometimes in poetry they come before their antecedents; as:—

"Can storied urn or animated bust

Back to *its* mansion call the fleeting breath?"

(c) In thought, a pronoun represents its antecedent with all its modifiers; as, "I saw *the most beautiful residence in the city*, and saw *it* burn." But for convenience in parsing, only the noun may be named as the antecedent.

(d) The antecedent of an interrogative pronoun follows it, and is therefore called the *subsequent*. Here the pronoun and the subsequent are in different sentences; as, *Who* wrote the Iliad? *Homer* wrote the Iliad.

(e) A pronoun agrees with its antecedent in person, number, and gender.

THE PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

192. There are six personal pronouns: *I* for the *first person*; *thou* or *you* for the *second*; and *he*, *she*, or *it* for the *third*. Each of these has its corresponding plural. Thus, *we* is the plural of *I*; *ye* of *thou*; *you* is either singular or plural; and *they* is the plural of *he*, *she*, or *it*. Each has, also, different forms corresponding to the different cases, as is shown by the declension, Article 198.

(a) These pronouns are called *personal* because their form always shows their *person*; not because they always stand for *persons*, for they do not. *It* and *they* may stand for *persons*, for *brute animals*, or for *inanimate objects*.

(b) *You* was originally only plural, and still requires a plural verb; but it should now be regarded as *singular* or *plural* according as it represents *one* or *more than one*.

(c) *Thou* is the original second person singular pronoun. *Thou* and its plural *ye* are still in common use among the Friends, or Quakers, in the Bible and other sacred writing, and in antiquated and poetic forms of expression; but in all ordinary speech or writing, *you* is used in both the singular and the plural. *Thy*, and *thine* for the possessive, *thee* for the objective, and *thyself* for emphasizing either the nominative or the objective, are used like *thou* and *ye*. These pronouns seem also at some time to have acquired an insulting signification, still traceable in our literature. At Walter Raleigh's trial, Lord Coke, having failed with argument and evidence, insulted the defendant by *thouing* him thus, "All that Lord Cobham did, was at *thy* instigation, *thou* viper; for I *thou thee*, *thou* traitor."

(d) *Mine*, *thine*, *yours*, *ours*, *theirs*, *hers* are used instead of *my*, *thy*, *your*, *our*, *their*, *her* when the limited noun is omitted, but the parsing of one form does not differ from that of the other. They are all *personal pronouns* in the *possessive case*, not *possessive pronouns*. It is illogical to make a separate class for the so-called *possessive pronouns*, which are like all other personals except in case, unless we make a separate class also for the *nominative*, and one for the *objective*. If we make *case* a basis for classification of pronouns, we shall have just as good reason for classifying them according to *person*, *number*, and *gender*. We have no pronouns representing "both the possessor and the thing possessed."

(e) *I* is the singular pronoun of the first person, and should always be used when the speaker refers to himself alone. Its possessive form is *my* or *mine*, and its objective form is *me*.

(*f*) *We* is the plural pronoun of the first person, and should be used, — (1) When the speaker or writer refers to himself as associated with some other person or persons; (2) When the speaker or writer refers to himself as the representative of a *class, school, doctrine, people, community, section, state, or nation*. The latter is known as the *editorial, or representative, we*, and it is an exhibition of bad taste and unpardonable ignorance to use it instead of *I*, when the speaker refers to himself only. The possessive form of *we* is *our* or *ours*, and its objective form is *us*.

(*g*) *They* often refers to persons indefinitely; as, "*They* say." *He* and *she* are sometimes used in the same way. "*He* that wilfully injures another is a bad man." "*She* that knows merely how to dress, dance, and flirt, will never make a good wife."

(*h*) The English language has no personal pronoun of the third person, singular number, and common gender, and although we are very much in need of one, it is not probable that we shall ever have it. Some unsuccessful attempts have been made to adopt the word *thon*, from "*that one*," but usage sanctions the masculine forms, *he, his, and him*; as, "If any person wishes to contribute to this cause, let *him* drop *his* money into the hat when *he* hears *his* name called."

(*i*) **Peculiar Uses of *It*.** — It is a personal pronoun of the third person, singular number, and neuter gender. It is used like other pronouns to represent a noun with which it agrees; as, "He bought the book and gave *it* to me." But it has also peculiar uses: —

(1) It is used for the names of infants; as, "The child stood by *its* mother."

(2) It is used as the subject of the verb *to be*, followed by a complement in any person and number; as, "*It* is I"; "*It* is you"; "*It* is he"; "*It* is we"; "*It* is they"; "Who is *it*?" "What is *it*?"

In such sentences the antecedent is not the predicate pronoun, but the name of the object not given, but definitely understood by the speaker; as, "It (the *thing* that we see) is he."

(3) It is used as the grammatical subject of certain verbs which are followed by their logical subjects; as, "*It* is human to err"; "*It* is evident *that he is mistaken*"; "I wish *it* to be understood *that I did my best*."

In such cases parse *it* as the subject of the verb, and the following phrase or clause, in apposition with *it*.

(4) It is used to represent an antecedent not expressed but obviously understood; as, "Princeton makes *it* (a mile) in 2.19 $\frac{1}{2}$."

(5) It is sometimes used to denote what the speaker cannot designate in any other way: the state or condition of things, or a point in time; as, "*It* thunders"; "*It* rains"; "*It* is two o'clock."

(j) *Our'n, your'n, his'n, her'n, we uns, and you uns* are barbarisms too gross to be mentioned. Any one that uses such expressions should not bother himself about grammar.

(k) In using two or more pronouns of different persons, the third person should precede the first, and the second should precede the third ; as : —

You, he, and I received the honors.

But this is a matter of courtesy, not of grammar. The same rule of politeness would require the order of the pronouns to be reversed if we wished to speak in an uncomplimentary way ; as, "I and you deserve the blame." Of course, one should never be impolite, neither should he use profane language ; but he may do either or both without violating any grammatical construction.

SUB-CLASSES OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

193. Personal pronouns have **two sub-classes**: *Simple* and *Compound*.

194. The **simple personals** are *I, thou, you, he, she, it*, and their declined forms.

195. The **compound personals** are *myself, thyself, yourself, himself, itself, herself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves*.

196. They have two principal uses : (1) a *reflexive* use in the objective case ; (2) an *intensive* use in the nominative or the objective case. This second use is merely for *emphasis*.

The bear hung *himself*. The house was divided against *itself*. I, *myself*, saw him do it. You, *yourself*, told me.

(a) Sometimes in poetic or antique forms of expression the compound form stands alone in the nominative ; as, "*Myself* am hell." — *Milton*. "Giving out that *himself* was some great one." — *Acts*. But ordinarily it is nominative only when in apposition with another nominative, as, "She, *herself*, is coming" ; or is used as the complement of a copula, as, "She is not *herself* any more."

(b) Sometimes the simple personal is used instead of the compound ; as, "Get *thee* (thyself) behind me." "Make *thee* (thyself) an ark of gopher wood." But in such expressions as, "Haste *thee*," it is better to regard the objective *thee* as idiomatically used for the nominative *thou*.

(c) *Self* is sometimes used substantively ; as, "He is a great lover of *self*." "My own *self*," etc.

(d) It seems to have an adverbial construction in, "The *self* same place," which is equivalent to "The *very* same place."

(e) Formerly *hissself* and *theihsself* were in common use, but they are now obsolete. *Oursself* is peculiar to the regal style.

197. Properties of Pronouns. — Pronouns, whether personal, relative, or interrogative, have the same properties as nouns, — **Person, Number, Gender, Case.** They have also the same constructions as nouns.

198. Declension of the Personal Pronouns.

	(1) FIRST PERSON.		(2) SECOND PERSON.	
	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>Nominative.</i>	I.	We.	Thou, you.	Ye, you.
<i>Possessive.</i>	My.	Our.	Thy, your.	Your.
<i>Objective.</i>	Me.	Us.	Thee, you.	You.

	THIRD PERSON.			
	SINGULAR.			PLURAL.
	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Neuter.</i>	<i>All genders.</i>
<i>Nominative.</i>	He.	She.	It.	They.
<i>Possessive.</i>	His.	Her.	Its.	Their.
<i>Objective.</i>	Him.	Her.	It.	Them.

(a) The pupil should fix the declension firmly in mind, and should never lose sight of the fact *that the object of declension is to show the different forms corresponding to the different persons, numbers, genders, and cases.* Knowing this, he may avoid all errors in the use of the pronouns by mastering a very few rules, — especially Rules I., II., III., IV., V., VI., VII., and XIV. *There is no other way to learn to use the pronoun with any degree of assurance. It can never be done by imitation.*

(b) When a pupil declines a pronoun, he should be allowed to use each case form in a sentence, and to illustrate any nominative or objective construction the teacher thinks it advisable to call for.

199. Model for Parsing Pronouns.

1. Species.
2. Class.
3. Sub-class.
4. Antecedent or Subsequent.

5. Agreement in (a) Person, (b) Number, (c) Gender.
6. Case. 7. Construction. 8. Rule.

The boy took *your* top and *we* took *his*.

John has come and I like *him*.

Your, pro., per., simp., antecedent, name of the person or persons spoken to, with which it agrees in second, singular or plural, com., R. XIV., poss., and limits *top*, R. VIII.

We, pro., per., simp., ante., name of the persons represented by the speaker, with which it agrees in first, plu., com., R. XIV, nom., subj. of *took*, R. I.

His, pro., per., simp., ante., name of the person spoken of, with which it agrees in third, sing., mas., R. XIV., poss., and limits *top*, R. VIII.

Him, pro., per., simp., ante., *John*, with which it agrees in third, sing., mas., R. XIV., obj., obj. of *like*, R. IV.

200. Write the parsing of italicized pronouns, observing punctuation, capitals, and spelling. Parse orally the italicized nouns. Read to the teacher and class, grammar authority on questionable constructions.

(A) 1. *We* think. 2. *She* prattles. 3. *Thou* art adored. 4. *I* hope *you* will give *me* the book *I* lent *you*. 5. *Ours* are as good as *yours*. 4. *You* must blame *yourselves* for *your* loss. 7. Behold the moon; *she* cometh forth in *her* beauty. 8. *He* is taller than *I*. 9. *Them* that honor *me*, *I* will honor. 10. *She herself* is to blame. 11. He thought *I* was *she*.

(B) 1. *It* is too early for *flowers*. 2. *She* is very beautiful and she knows *it*. 3. *He* wanted *them* to elect *me* chairman. 4. *He* wanted to be a *preacher*, but *he* wanted *me* to be a *tailor*. 5. *She* desired *him* to go. 6. *She* compelled *him* to go. 7. And *methought* that the *lighthouse* looked lovely as *Hope*. 8. *He* is a good boy. 9. *We* believe *him* to be a good boy. 10. *He* being a good boy, *we* do not fear *him*. 11. *I* thought *he* was *you*. 12. *I* thought *him* to be *you*. 13. *He* being *you*, *I* must try to like *him*. 14. *I* was supposed to be *you*.

201. *Fill the blanks with he, she, him, her, I, or me, and give the number of the rule that governs your selection :*

1. John and — may go. 2. May John and — go?
3. Let John and — go. 4. Let not — boast that puts his armor on, but — that takes it off. 5. He calls May and —.
6. — that cometh to me, I will in no wise cast out. 7. Who ate the oranges? It was —.
8. If I were — I would resist. 9. Was it — I saw? No; it was —.
10. They came with Harry and —.
11. Harry and — came with them. 12. She wants — and — to be good.
13. O, no, my child, 'twas not in war,
And — that kills a single man his neighbors all abhor.
14. Look at Lucy and —; we are running. 15. He thought — to be —.
16. — that overcometh, will I make a pillar in the temple. 17. We thought him to be —.
18. He was thought to be —.

Fill blanks with we, us, they, and them, referring to rules : —

1. That is good for — Americans. 2. It is not — but — whom he seeks to please. 3. Did you say that — or — were chosen?
4. She told Helen and — boys to speak plainly. 5. Let — who are pure throw the first stone. 6. Let none touch it but — who are clean. 7. It was — whom you saw. 8. Could it have been — who did the mischief?
9. Whom did he want? — girls.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

202. There are two interrogative pronouns, **who** and **what**.

(a) *Which* is also commonly classed among the interrogative pronouns, but its use is different from that of *who* and *what*. *Which* refers to one of a number of persons or things. The particular noun referred to is always expressed or definitely understood; as, "*Which* book do you want?" "I want the *large* book." "*Which* [hat] will you take?" "The *cheapest* [hat]." It will be observed also that the responsive word

is not a noun, but an adjective. *Which* in such sentences should be parsed as an *interrogative adjective*.

203. *Who* and *what* are used less definitely than *which*.

204. *Who* is used when it is supposed that the word answering to it will be the name of a *person*.

205. *What* is used when it is supposed that the word answering to it will be the name of *anything else*.

(a) *What* is an adjective when it immediately precedes a noun; as, "What horse shall I ride?" *Who* is never used adjectively.

206. Declension of the Interrogative Pronouns.

<i>Nominative.</i>	Who.	What.
<i>Possessive.</i>	Whose.	Whats.
<i>Objective.</i>	Whom.	What.

207. The case and construction of an interrogative pronoun are always the same as that of its responsive word in the answer; as, "*Who* came?" "*George* came." "*Who* is it?" "It is *George*." "*Whose* book is it?" "It is *George's* book." "*Whom* did he want?" "He wanted *George*."

208. Every interrogative word has the same construction in the interrogative sentence as the responsive word has in the declarative sentence that answers the question.

(a) This rule will be found very useful. Let the pupils illustrate it by applying it to every kind of word that can ask a question.

(b) An interrogative pronoun is never found in the nominative absolute case, and is never in apposition.

(c) An interrogative pronoun has no compound forms, but may be either **direct** or **indirect**.

THE INDIRECT INTERROGATIVE.

209. These same words, **who** and **what**, are often used in substantive clauses, not to ask, but to imply, questions; as : —

- (1) I know *who* discovered America.
- (2) I know *who* took the teacher's pen.
- (3) He asked me *what* I wanted

210. In all such sentences *who* and *what* are *indirect interrogative pronouns*.

211. *An Indirect Interrogative Pronoun is one used in a substantive clause to imply a question.*

212. Some have proposed to avoid this distinction by calling *who* and *what* relative pronouns in such sentences. But the slightest regard for the thought makes this disposition impossible. *A relative pronoun always joins an adjective clause to a substantive; these pronouns have no connective force and are used in substantive clauses.* We cannot say that the antecedent of *who* is understood, for (1) does not mean, "I know [the man] who discovered America." No one now living can truthfully make such a statement, unless he means that from history he has learned the character of Columbus. But certainly this thought is not expressed by, "I know who discovered America." Nor does (2) mean, "I know [the boy] who took the teacher's pen." This would give no information, for he is doubtless a fellow pupil, whom we all know. Or if it is insisted that "I know [the boy] who took the teacher's pen," expresses a possible thought, and it does, even a beginner will readily see that the thought is not the one expressed in "I know who took the teacher's pen."

213. Nor can *what* in such sentences as (3) be called a relative pronoun. *What* is a double relative pronoun when it can be expanded into *the thing that* and preserve the meaning intended; but *what* in (3) cannot be so expanded. *What* in (3) and *who* in (1) and (2) are indirect interrogative pronouns.

214. **Here are the Tests.** — *Who or what as a direct interrogative pronoun asks a direct question and may be used in either a principal sentence or substantive clause. Who or what as an indirect interrogative pronoun never asks, but always implies, a question, and is always used in a substan-*

tive clause. Who as a relative pronoun is always used in an adjective clause, which it joins to its antecedent. What as a relative pronoun is always double, — is equivalent to both an antecedent part and a relative part, — and can be expanded into the thing that.

(a) **No interrogative word**, direct or indirect, **is ever a connective**. No connective is needed for a substantive clause.

(b) **The declension** of the indirect interrogative pronouns is the same as of the direct interrogatives. *Illustrate, using each form in a sentence.*

(c) **The substantive clause** containing the indirect interrogative may be used in any one of the three nominative or five objective constructions. *Illustrate.*

(d) **The construction** of the indirect interrogative pronoun is the same in the implied question as would be that of the direct interrogative if the question were asked. *Illustrate.* Either a direct or an indirect interrogative pronoun may be used in any of the nominative or objective constructions except apposition. *Illustrate.*

215. Parsing of Interrogative Pronouns.

- (1) *Who* is he? (2) *What* do you think she has?
(3) He asked *who* was behind the door.

Who, pro., inter., direct, subsequent, the responsive word in the answer to the question, with which it agrees in per., num. and gen., R. XIV., nom., complement of *is*, R. VI.

What, pro., inter., direct, subsequent, the responsive word in the answer to the question, with which it agrees in per., num. and gen., R. XIV., obj., obj. of *has*, R. IV.

Who, pro., inter., indirect, subsequent, the responsive word in the answer to the implied question, with which it agrees in per., num. and gen., R. XIV., nom., subj. of *was*, R. I.

(a) When an interrogative pronoun is used as the subject of a verb it generally requires the verb to be of the third person, singular number, but for convenience the interrogative may always be parsed as agreeing with the responsive word.

216. *Write the parsing of italicized words, and tell whether each interrogative is direct or indirect.*

- (1) *Who* came with you ?
- (2) To *whom* did you speak ?
- (3) *What* is he ? A blacksmith.
- (4) *Who* is in the garden ?
- (5) *Who* is that ?
- (6) *What* is your opinion of good nature ?
- (7) *Who* are you, *what* have you, and *what* do you want done ?
- (8) *Who* was the first President ? Washington was the first President.
- (9) *Who* was the founder of Rhode Island ? The founder of Rhode Island was Roger Williams.
- (10) *Who* is your guest ?
- (11) *Who* is it ?
- (12) *What* would a man give for his soul ?
- (13) *What* would a man give his soul for ?
- (14) Can you guess *who* came ?
- (15) Ask her *what* she wants us to be.
- (16) Ask her *whom* she wants to see.

217. *Fill the blanks with suitable pronouns, giving the number of the rule each illustrates.*

- (1) — did he inquire for ?
- (2) — do men say that I am ?
- (3) — do you think me to be ?
- (4) — do you think to be me ?
- (5) — does she wish to be ?
- (6) The question, — do you think me to be ? has been answered.
- (7) Do you know — he thinks we are ?
- (8) Can you guess — he thought it was ?
- (9) Could you imagine — he thought you were ?
- (10) You will never know — she guessed you to be.

RELATIVE OR CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUNS.

218. *A Relative or Conjunctive Pronoun is one that joins to its antecedent a limiting clause ; as, "A man that is honest will be respected." "The buggy, which was in very bad condition, brought a good price."*

219. There are five relatives—**who, which, that, as, and what**. They do not show their person and number by their form, as may be seen from the following : —

I	}	<i>that went to town, etc.</i>
You		
He		
She		
They		
We		

220. The substantive limited by the relative clause, is called the **antecedent**. It is usually a *noun* or *personal pronoun*, but it may be a *phrase* or a *clause*; as, "*To stay away, which* would be to acknowledge his inability to do the work, would keep him from being selected;" "*The boy closed the door, which* darkened the room;" or it may be an *interrogative pronoun*; as "*Who that* has asked for bread has ever been refused?" It is never another relative.

221. The antecedent is commonly in the *nominative case* or the *objective*; but may sometimes be in the *nominative absolute*; as : —

"*John, who* had been promised the position, having declined it, they give it to me ;"

or the *possessive*; as : —

"Be thou the first true merit to befriend ;

His praise is lost, **who** waits till all commend." — *Pope*.

"My doctrine is not mine, but *his that* sent me." — *John* vii. 16.

CLASSES OF RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

222. There are three classes of relatives: **Simple, Compound, and Double**.

223. (1) The *simple relatives* are **who, which, that, and as**.

224. (2) The *compound relatives* are formed by annexing *ever*, or *soever*, to the simple relatives, *who* and *which*. *That* and *as* have no compound forms. The compound

relatives are more comprehensive and less definite in their use than the simple relatives.

225. (3) The *double relative* is **what**. It is called double, because it is equivalent to two parts, an *antecedent part* and a *relative part*. The antecedent of a simple or a compound relative is always expressed or understood in the principal sentence ; a double relative contains its own antecedent, and is always expanded into its two equivalent parts before it is parsed. It is better in most cases to expand *what* into *the thing that*. *What* has also the compound forms, *whatever* and *whatsoever*, which are expanded into *the thing whichever* and *the thing whichsoever*. Thus, the sentences, "I took *what* he gave me," and "You shall have *whatever* you want," mean, "I took *the thing that* he gave me," and "You shall have *any thing whichever* you want."

(a) **Whoever** and **whosoever** have been erroneously treated as double relatives. They are compound, but not double. It is their peculiar characteristic to be used when their antecedents are understood ; but they do not, like *what* and *whatever*, contain their antecedents.

(b) The objective form of the simple relative *who* is also sometimes used when its antecedent is not expressed ; as "*Whom* the gods love die young."

226. Personal and Relative Pronouns are alike in —

- (1) Both *represent nouns*.
- (2) Both have the *properties* and *constructions* of nouns.
- (3) Both agree with their antecedents in *person*, *number*, and *gender*.
- (4) Both have the sub-classes, *simple* and *compound*.
- (5) Both admit of *Declension*.

227. Personal and Relative Pronouns are unlike in —

- (1) The relative has a *connective use*, and the personal has not.
- (2) The personal has a *distinct form* for each grammatical person, and the relative has not.
- (3) The personal may be used in either *principal* or *subordinate sentences* ; the relative, only in *subordinate*.
- (4) The relative may be *double* ; the personal cannot.

228. Declension of the Relative Pronouns : —

	SIMPLE.	DOUBLE.
<i>Nominative.</i>	Who, which, that.	WHAT.
<i>Possessive.</i>	Whose.	
<i>Objective.</i>	Whom, which, that.	WHAT.

COMPOUND.

<i>Nominative.</i>	Whoever, whosoever, whichever, whicheversoever.
<i>Possessive.</i>	Whosoever.
<i>Objective.</i>	Whomsoever, whichever, whicheversoever.

(a) *Whose* is the possessive of *who*, *which*, or *that*.

(b) *That* is usually said to be indeclinable, but it is as declinable as *which*.

(c) *What* as the double relative, and the simple relative *as*, cannot be used in the possessive.

229. Kinds of Objects Represented.—*Who* is used for *persons* or for *other objects personified*; as, “The architect, *who* lives in the city, came to see us.” “The goose, *who* thought the dog an intruder, thus in winged words addressed him.”

(a) *Who* should never be used for *brute animals*, or for *inanimate objects* unless they are *personified*.

230. Which may be used either for *brute animals* or for *inanimate objects*; as, “His horse, *which* was bought with his father’s money, is all he has left.” “The *house*, *which* is heavily mortgaged, is all they own.”

(a) *Which*, in earlier English, was used for persons. This use of *which* is very frequent in the Bible; as, “Our Father, *which* art in heaven”; but it is not now good English. Also, it was formerly used substantively; as, “In the *which*.”

231. That may be used for *persons*, *brute animals*, or *inanimate objects*; as, “The man *that* is sick wants food.” “The *cow that* was sold yesterday died to-day.” “The tree *that* fell stood near the corner of the house.”

232. Kinds of Relative Clauses. — Restrictive and Explanatory.

233. A Restrictive Clause is one that restricts or narrows the application of the antecedent ; as, “Men *that are honest* are better than men *that are dishonest.*” “Words *that are names* are nouns.” “A boy *that will lie* is not to be trusted.” “The Washington *that emigrated to this country* was the ancestor of the Washington *that is called the father of his country.*”

(a) A **Restrictive Clause** has the force of an adjective ; as, “*honest men,*” “*dishonest men,*” “*name words,*” “*lying boy,*” etc.

234. An Explanatory Clause is one that explains the antecedent, or expresses a thought as additional to the one contained in the principal sentence ; as,

Men, *who are rational animals,* are better than brutes, *which are irrational animals.*

Words, *which are the signs of ideas,* are divided into classes.

Mr. Harris, *who was there when it occurred,* told me.

Washington, *who was the father of his country,* was the spirit of the Revolution, *which gave birth to the American Republic.*

(a) An **Explanatory Clause** has the force of an *appositive* or of a *coördinate sentence*. Thus the first above might be written, — Men, *rational animals,* are better than brutes, *irrational animals* ; and the third, — Mr. Harris told me, and *he was there when it occurred.*

(b) This distinction between *restrictive* and *explanatory* clauses is very difficult and very important. The pupil should study these definitions and illustrative sentences till he has mastered it. He must be able to point out readily the relative clauses in his Reader, Arithmetic, History, Geography, and Physiology, and to tell whether each is *restrictive* or *explanatory*, and *why*. Also, he must become able to talk on any of the school subjects mentioned above, or any other, using either *restrictive* or *explanatory* clauses as the teacher may direct, and observing the direction given in article for the relative to be used.

(c) An *explanatory* clause, but not a *restrictive*, is set off by commas.

235. Relative to be Preferred in Each Kind of Clause.

236. *That* is decidedly preferable to *who* or *which* in restrictive clauses. In modern English it is never used in explanatory clauses.

237. *Who* or *which* must be used in every explanatory clause.

(a) When a relative is needed immediately after a preposition it must be *whom* or *which*, for *that* cannot be so used. In this case we must either use the objective form of *who* or *which*, even in a restrictive clause, or close the sentence with a preposition. Either is allowable; as, "He is the man *that* I came *with*," or "He is the man *with whom* I came."

(b) *Who* may sometimes be used in a restrictive clause to avoid the repetition of *that*; as, "A woman *that* had a daughter *who* was very beautiful," or "A woman *who* had a daughter *that* was very beautiful."

(c) Good writers often carelessly use *who* and *which* in restrictive clauses, but nothing is gained by it; it is a violation of rule that should neither be encouraged by the grammarian nor imitated by the student of composition.

238. *As* may be parsed as a relative after the adjectives *such*, *many*, and *same*. It is always used in restrictive clauses; as, "Such a man *as* he is, let me try to be." "As many *as* joined the church, were baptized." "He has the same peculiarities *as* his father."

239. *What* and *whatever* are sometimes used like *which* and *whichever*; as, "*What* consolation you get out of that speech you are welcome to." "*Whatever* money you have you may keep." Although these words immediately precede nouns, they cannot be called *adjectives*, for the sentences are evidently complex, and must contain connectives. The sentences mean, "You are welcome to the consolation *that* you get out of that speech," and "You may keep the money *whichever* you have." They cannot be *double relatives*, for they do not contain *their antecedents*, — "*consolation*," and "*money*." *What* is therefore a *simple relative*, equivalent to *which*; and *whatever* is a *compound relative*, equivalent to *whichever*.

240. Connective Use of the Relative. — The relative is always found in a complex sentence, and always depends for its construction on some word in the subordinate sentence, which it joins to its antecedent in the principal. Thus, the sentence, "A boy *that is studious* will learn," is complex. "A boy will learn" is called the principal, and "*that is studious*," the subordinate sentence. The relative, *that*, joins the subordinate sentence to its antecedent "*boy*." The relative pronoun therefore performs the office of a *conjunction*, on account of which it is sometimes called by its more appropriate name, *conjunctive pronoun*.

241. Before parsing the relative, the pupil should always point out the *principal sentence*, naming its *subject*, *predicate*, and the *antecedent* of the relative; then the *subordinate sentence*; then the relative, stating its *construction* in the subordinate sentence and also its *connective use*.

242. Remember *that the antecedent always comes in the principal sentence and depends for its construction on some word in the principal sentence; that the relative always comes in the subordinate sentence and depends for its construction on some word in the subordinate sentence.*

243. As is indeclinable; it may be *singular* or *plural*; *masculine*, *feminine*, or *neuter*; *nominative* or *objective*. It is always a relative after the adjective *same*.

244. Technical Notes that may be omitted.

(a) *As* is chiefly used like *than*, in making comparisons; but it may be seen that even after *such* or *many* it is used in two different senses:—

(1) It may refer to an identical object previously mentioned.

(2) It may refer to two different objects, or classes of objects, in such a manner as to suggest some similarity between them.

It is the first of these uses, not the second, that entitles *as* to be called a *relative pronoun*. Let us try to see this distinction. In "She sang such songs *as* were called for," the meaning is that she sang, not similar, but the identical songs that were called for. "Such songs as" = "the songs that." (2) "As many *as* received him, to them gave he power" = "All that received," etc. (3) "These are the same as you saw yester-

day" = "These are the same *that*," etc. In such sentences as the last three *as* should be parsed as a relative pronoun. But in such sentences as "I have often bought such bananas *as* you are selling, for five cents a dozen," the use of *as* is entirely different. I have bought, not the identical bananas that you are selling, but similar ones. The above sentence is evidently elliptical. In full it would read: "I have often bought such bananas as [those bananas are that] you are selling, for five cents a dozen." *As* relates not to "bananas," but to "such." "Such" is an adjective; so is *as*. It is a predicate adjective used as the complement of [are], and modifies [bananas]. And in "Milton has fine descriptions of morning, but not *so* many *as* Shakespeare," *as* is evidently not a relative. The sentence expresses a comparison, the basis of which is number. *So* . . . *as* are responsive adverbs. "*So*" introduces the comparison and limits *many* as a simple adverb of degree. *As* is a conjunctive adverb of degree; it limits [many] and joins its subordinate sentence to *so*. The sentence that expresses in full the exact thought clearly implied in the above is, Milton has fine descriptions of morning, but not so many as [the descriptions are many that] Shakespeare [has].

It may be well in most cases to avoid difficult distinctions by calling *as* always a relative after the adjectives *such*, *many*, and *same*; but the teacher at least should know that *the distinctions exist*, and when his classes are prepared for them, they will afford the very best material for lessons in thought.

(b) When the pronoun *it* is the subject of a sentence, it is often modified by a relative clause that follows the predicate; as:—

- (1) "*It* is the tree *that* frightens my horse."
- (2) "*It* is I *that* calls him."
- (3) "*It* is you *that* is to blame."

It is very common for speakers, writers, and even grammarians to misconstrue such relative clauses. In most cases they belong to the subject *it*. *It* is the antecedent of the relative, and the verb in the subordinate sentence should therefore be of the *third person singular*, instead of agreeing in person and number with the predicate noun or pronoun. It gives the sentence a very different meaning to construe the relative with the predicate. Thus the three sentences above are evidently intended to be the respective answers to the questions:—

- (1) "What is *it that* frightens your horse?"
- (2) "Who is *it that* calls him?"
- (3) "Who is *it that* is to blame?"

The first sentence could be the answer to the question, "What tree is it?" Then *tree* would be the antecedent of the relative *that*, and the verb *frightens* would remain unchanged. And the third could be the answer to the question, "Who is to be censured?" Then it would read, "It is *you that* are to blame." In this case, the verb would determine the construction of the clause, or rather the construction of the clause would determine the form of the verb. *Be very careful to determine what is the use of the clause, and then construct your sentence, or parse it, accordingly.* Even President Bascom in his "Philosophy of Rhetoric" says: "It is this unexpected union and quick recoil of ideas that *please* the mind."

245. Constructions of Relative Pronouns. — A relative pronoun may have any of the nominative or objective constructions except apposition. It may also be possessive, limiting a substantive of different signification or used as the subject of a participle having a dependent substantive use.

246. Remember *that no relative is ever in apposition or in any absolute construction.*

247. Parsing of Relative Pronouns.

- (1) A man *that* is careless with his business will lose it.

That, pro., rel., simp., ante. *man*, with which it agrees in third, sing., mas., R. XIV., nom., subj. of *is*, R. I.

- (2) He will do such work *as* the man requires.

As, pro., rel., simp., ante. *work*, with which it agrees in third, sing., neut., R. XIV., obj., obj. of *requires*, R. IV.

- (3) *Whoever* looks for perfection will be disappointed.

Whoever, pro., rel., comp., ante. [*he*], with which it agrees in third, sing., mas., R. XIV., nom., subj. of *looks*, R. I.

- (4) I shall be satisfied with *what* I receive =
I shall be satisfied with *the thing that* I receive.

What, pro., rel., double, = *the thing that*.

Thing, the antecedent part, n., com., third, sing., neut., obj., obj. of *with*, R. V.

That, pro., rel., simp., ante. *thing*, with which it agrees in third, sing, neut., R. XIV., obj., obj. of *receive*, R. IV.

- (5) Ask for *whatever* you want =
Ask for *the thing whichever* you want.

Whatever, pro., rel., comp., double, = *the thing whichever*.

Thing, the ante. part, n., com., third, sing., neut., obj., obj. of *for*, R. V.

Whichever, the rel. part, pro., rel., comp., ante. *thing*, with which it agrees in third, sing., neut., R. XIV., obj., obj. of *want*, R. IV.

- (6) *Whatever* money was in the purse is mine =
The money *whichever* was in the purse is mine.

Whatever is equivalent to *whichever*, and is a pro., rel., comp. (but not double), ante. *money*, with which it agrees in third, sing., neut., R. XIV., nom., sub. of *was*, R. I.

248. *Designate each principal sentence, subordinate sentence, antecedent, and relative. Tell whether the clause is restrictive or explanatory, and why. Write in full the parsing of all italicized words, and give orally the case and construction of all other words designated by the teacher. Be careful to distinguish the double relative from the indirect interrogative. Read to the teacher and class grammar references on questionable construction.*

- (A) 1. Death is the season *that* tries our affections. 2. The eye, *which* sees all things, sees not itself. 3. He *that* gathereth in summer is a wise son. 4. The evil *that* men do lives after them. 5. *Whoever* said it must

have been misinformed. 6. He is a man in *whom* I have little confidence. 7. Where are the flowers *that* you promised to send me. 8. She is the lady *that* I spoke of. 9. My brother, *who* lives in Kansas, came to see me. 10. My brother *that* lives in Kansas came to see me.

(B) 1. *Who that* has heard him once would ever hear him again? 2. This is the book *that* we are to study. 3. The fox, *who* saw the trap, said to his companion. 4. I believe in a religion *whose* origin is divine. 5. I had a dream, *which* was not all a dream. 6. The place to *which* we came was an open field. 7. I am not the man *that* he thought me to be. 8. He is not the man *that* he was thought to be. 9. *Whom* the shoe fits, let him put it on. 10. He is the man *whom* we thought to be you. 11. He is the man *whom* we thought you to be.

12. " *Who* stops to plunder at this signal hour,
The birds shall tear him, and the dogs devour."

— *Pope's Homer.*

13. *Whoever* comes shall be admitted. 14. Take *whichever* you like best. 15. Words, *which* are the signs of ideas, are divided into classes. 16. Words *that* are names are nouns. 17. Do you see *what* I have? 18. I do not care *what* she thinks. 19. Do you know *what* I have? 20. He saw *what* I did. 21. He asked *what* I did. 22. Give me *what* you please. 23. For *what* have we endured all this? 24. I remember *what* was said. 25. Fops are more attentive to *what* is showy, than mindful of *what* is necessary. 26. Conscience wakes the bitter memory of *what* he was. 27. I heard *what* he wanted. 28. *Whom* the gods love die young. 29. *Whatever* she touched turned to beauty. 30. *Whatever* purifies the heart also fortifies it. 31. *Whatever* he found, he took. 32. *Whatever* money I get, I spend. 33. *Whatever* he may do, I shall go. 34. *Whoever* studies will learn. 35. *Whoever* will, may come. 36. *Whatsoever* is more than these cometh of evil. 37. *Whom* the Lord loveth, He chasteneth. 38. *Whoso* boasteth himself of a false gift, is like clouds and wind without rain.

249. *Fill each blank with who or whom, designating by number the rule illustrated. Tell whether each word supplied is a relative or interrogative. When possible, change the infinitive to a finite verb and the finite verb in the clause to an infinitive, noting carefully the case and construction of every substantive both before and after the change.*

- (1) He knew not — they were.
- (2) He married a lady, — they say is very wealthy.
- (3) She married a man, — I know to be worthless.
- (4) — do men say that I am ?
- (5) — does he think me to be ?
- (6) — does he think to be me ?
- (7) I saw a man, — I think is to deliver the oration.
- (8) — do you think that he is ?
- (9) — do you think him to be ?
- (10) — was he thought to be ?
- (11) — do you wish to see ?
- (12) — is it that you wish to see ?
- (13) He is a man, — I thought you to be.
- (14) He is a man, — I thought to be you.
- (15) He is a man, — was thought to be you.
- (16) He is a man, — you were thought to be.
- (17) — did you inquire for ?
- (18) — do you wish to see ?
- (19) She is not a lady, — we supposed her to be.
- (20) She is not a lady, — she was supposed to be.

250. Outline of Substantives, Nouns, and Pronouns.

1a. Classes.

1b. Noun : A name ; as Mary, James, Washington, water, air, farmer, angel, world, mind, thought, love, brightness, Mary Jane Porter.

1c. Proper : A name used to distinguish an object from others of the same class.

2c. Common : One that names a class.

1d. Collective : One that in the singular may name a group of objects.

2d. Abstract : Name of an object regarded as an attribute of some other object.

3d. Class : A common noun not included in any of the other classes.

2b. Pronoun : A word used to represent a noun.

1c. Personal : One that has distinct forms for different grammatical persons : *I, thou, you, he, she, it*, and their declined forms.

1d. Simple : (Without *self* or *selves* annexed.)

2d. Compound : (A simple personal with *self* or *selves* annexed.)

2c. Relative : One that may represent an antecedent of any grammatical person, and join to it a limiting clause : *who, which, that, as*, and *what*.

1d. Simple : (*Who, which, that, as*.)

2d. Compound : (*Whoever, whichever*.)

- 3d. Double : (*What.*)
- 4d. Compound-double : (*Whatever.*)
- 3c. Interrogative : *Who* and *what* when used in asking questions.
- 2a. Properties.
 - 1b. Person.
 - 1c. First.
 - 2c. Second.
 - 3c. Third.
 - 2b. Number.
 - 1c. Singular.
 - 2c. Plural.
 - 3b. Gender.
 - 1c. Masculine.
 - 2c. Feminine.
 - 3c. Neuter.
 - 4c. Common.
- 4b. Case: That property of a noun or pronoun that indicates or is indicated by its construction or use.
 - 1c. Nominative :
 - 1d. Dependent Constructions. (*Construction in grammar always means use.*)
 - 1e. Subject of a finite verb : *Sarah* and *I* will go.
 - 2e. Complement of a copulative verb whose subject is nominative. He is the *thief*. I thought you were *he*. He was thought to be the *thief*. You were thought to be *he*.
 - 3e. Complement of a copulative participle whose subject is possessive : His being a *capitalist* should not excuse him.
 - 4e. In Apposition.
 - 1f. With a word : Jones the *banker* died.
 - 2f. With a phrase : *His objecting to my statement*, a very rude act, caused my defeat.
 - 3f. With a sentence : *He came to my aid just in time*, a kindness for which I shall always be thankful.
 - 2d. Absolute Constructions.
 - 1e. By direct address : *George*, bring me your book.
 - 2e. By exclamation : *Mercy!*
 - 3e. By pleonasm (the use of a noun before a sentence in which something is said about its object) : The *stars*, they shall shine forever.
 - 4e. By inscription : *Blair's Rhetoric*.
 - 5e. With (subject of) a participle : *Spring* having come, we planted our flowers. (See Rule III.)
 - 6e. In apposition : Johnson, the *preacher*, having told us, we believed it.

2c. Possessive.

- 1d. Limiting a noun of different signification : *Brown's* bank. *My* hat.
- 2d. Limiting a noun of same signification = apposition : He read Nelson the *senator's* speech. (Better, He read Senator Nelson's speech.)

3c. Objective.

- 1d. Object of a transitive verb : They saw *James* and *me*.
- 2d. Object of a preposition : She went with *him* and her *father*.
- 3d. Subject of an infinitive : I believed the *boy* to be a liar. We wanted *him* to leave us.
- 4d. Complement of an infinitive copula whose subject is objective : We thought him to be a *merchant*. We thought him to be *her*.
- 5d. In apposition : We saw Brown, the new *minister*.

SYNTAX OF SUBSTANTIVES.

251. RULE I. — *A noun or pronoun used as the subject of a finite verb is in the nominative case.*

Cæsar conquered Gaul. *We* sometimes find men *that* think *they* know all *that* is known. *James* and *I* left the slate where *we* thought *it* would be easily found.

(a) To this rule there are no exceptions, and it is the only rule that is exclusively applicable to the nominative case.

(b) There is no liability to error in the use of nouns according to this rule, since they do not have different forms for the nominative case and the objective.

(c) In applying this rule to the pronoun, **we are liable to error** : —

(1) *When a personal, relative, or interrogative pronoun is the subject of an objective clause* ; as, "He thought John and *me* were to blame." "He is a man *whom* you would not suppose would do such a thing." "*Whom* do you think is the best ?"

In the first sentence *I* should be used instead of "*me*," because it stands as the subject of "*were*." In the second, the pronoun is the subject of "*would do*," and should be *who* instead of "*whom*"; in the third, "*whom*" should be changed to *who*, because it is the subject of "*is*."

(2) *When the verb is not expressed.*

1. Is she as tall as *me* ? — *Shakespeare*.
2. She suffers hourly more than *me*. — *Swift*.
3. The nations not so blessed as *thee*. — *Thomson*.
4. It is not for such as *us* to sit with the rulers of the land. — *Scott*.

5. She was neither better nor wiser than you or me. — *Thackeray*.

Such expressions should be condemned as false syntax, regardless of their authors; they must not be excused on the ground of *enallage*.

(d) *The subject of a finite verb is always a noun or some expression used as a noun.* It may be:—

(1) *A noun*; as, "*God* tempers the wind to the shorn lamb."

(2) *A pronoun*; as, "*She* plays better than *she* thinks."

(3) *An infinitive*; as, "*To be* contents his natural desire."

(4) *A participle*; as, "*Thinking* is harder than any other work."

(5) *A subordinate sentence*; as, "*When he came* is not known."

(e) The pronoun *it* is often used as the *grammatical subject* of certain verbs that are followed by their *logical subjects*; as, "*It* is pleasant to see the sun set;" "*It* is possible that he is mistaken."

It, in such cases, is sometimes called an *expletive*; but it should be parsed as the subject of the verb; because it is the word with which the verb agrees; and the logical subject, generally an *infinitive phrase* or a *subordinate proposition*, should be parsed as an *appositive* explaining it.

(f) The adverb *there* is often used to introduce a sentence in which the verb precedes its subject; as, "*There* came to the town a very strange woman."

There in such cases should be parsed as an *introductory expletive*.

252. *Point out the subjects of the finite verbs in the following sentences, and tell whether each is a noun, pronoun, infinitive, participle, phrase, or clause:—*

(1) Remote from cities lived a swain.

(2) For a man in health to be idle is disreputable.

(3) It is sinful to neglect the development of our powers.

(4) Bestowing a kindness is better than receiving one.

(5) He that is slow to anger is better than the mighty.

(6) Let him know that I have heard it.

(7) That he grows weaker each day is discouraging.

253. *Fill the following blanks with suitable pronouns, and give reason for your selection:—*

(1) I saw the man — they thought was dead.

(2) They met a young man — they agreed was nice looking.

(3) He was dissatisfied with those — circumstances had forbidden should ever be like himself.

(4) — do you think is in the room?

(5) It is not for such as — to fill such a position.

(6) — is taller than —, but — am heavier than —.

254. RULE II.— *The subject of an infinitive is in the objective case when it is not also the subject or complement of a finite verb.*

We believe *them* to be mistaken.

She wants *me* to learn.

He is the man, *whom* you thought to be me.

Whom do you want to have your money ?

(a) In the above sentences, the subjects of the infinitives being different from the subjects of the finite verbs, are put in the objective case ; but in each of the following sentences, the subject of the infinitive is also the subject or complement of the finite verb, and is therefore in the nominative case.

We do not intend to be mistaken.

She wants to learn.

He is a *man* to be pitied.

He is the man, *who* was thought to be I.

Who wants to have your money ?

(b) It may be well for the student to know that some of our very best grammarians reject the above rule altogether, and parse the objective subject of the infinitive as the object of the preceding verb ; but their excellence and their eminence as grammarians come in spite of this blunder, not on account of it.

To parse the words *them*, *me*, and *whom*, in the first four sentences above, as the objects of their preceding verbs, does not give the meanings intended. Indeed, it sometimes gives the sentence just the contrary meaning ; as, " We wanted *him* to leave ; " " She believes *me* to be a liar." *Me* in the last sentence has the same relation to *believes* that *I* has in " She believes *I* am a liar." Now we can no more say that *me* is objective because it follows the transitive verb *believe* in one sentence, than that *I* is nominative because it follows the transitive verb *believe* in the other. The two pronouns stand in precisely the same relation to the verb *believe* ; then if *I* is nominative because it is the subject of *am*, *me* must be objective because it is the subject of *to be*. The subject of an infinitive is objective, not because it follows a transitive verb or preposition, but because it is the subject of the infinitive, just as the subject of the finite verb is nominative because it is the subject of the finite verb. In other words, the language is so constructed. Neither is this objective subject a construction peculiar to the English ; it is just as common, and much more noticeable on account of their more extended inflection, in the Latin and the Greek ; and it is so understood and disposed of by the grammarians of those languages.

"The subject of the Infinitive Mood is in the accusative" (objective). — *Allen & Greenough's Latin Grammar*, § 240 (f).

"The subject of the infinitive mood is put in the accusative." — *Andrews & Stoddard's Latin Grammar*, § 239.

"The subject of the infinitive is in the accusative; as, λέγουσι τοὺς ἀνδρας ἀπελθεῖν, *they say that the men went away.*" — *Goodwin's Greek Grammar*.

"The infinitive mood in a dependent clause has its subject in the accusative." — *Bullion's Greek Grammar*, Art. 729; and in Art. 730, he says, "When the subject of the infinitive is the same with the subject of the preceding verb, it is put in the same case."

"The subject of the infinitive is put in the accusative." — *Crosby's Greek Grammar*.

"When the infinitive has a subject of its own, it is in the accusative. When, however, the subject of the infinitive is not different from the principal subject of the sentence, it is not expressed." — *Kühner's Greek Grammar*.

(c) **The subject of the infinitive may be —**

(1) *A noun*; as, "We want *Paul* to sing for us."

(2) *A pronoun*; as, "We want *him* to sing for us."

(3) *A participle*; as, "He thinks *cheating* me to be beating me."

(4) *Another infinitive*; as, "He thinks *to cheat* to be to rob."

(5) *A clause*; as, "He thinks *that I say nothing about it* to be evidence that I know nothing."

(d) This is one of the rules most frequently violated, and it should be thoroughly mastered by the pupil.

(e) The infinitive may usually be known by the sign *to* before it, but the sign is generally omitted after the verbs *bid, dare, feel, do, have, hear, let, make, need, see*; as, "Make him *be* still;" "We heard him *say* it;" "I saw him *do* it."

(f) See syntax of Rule XVI.

255. Exercises. — I. *Fill the following blanks with suitable pronouns and give reasons for your selection: —*

(1) I wish — to go.

(2) They expected — to be a teacher.

(3) She wanted John and — to go with her.

(4) For — to do his work well it is necessary for — to stay away from —.

(5) We supposed — to understand it.

(6) He is the man — we thought to be you.

(7) — do you expect to accept such an offer?

II. Write five sentences containing personal pronouns used as the subjects of infinitives. Five containing relative pronouns, and five containing interrogative pronouns, direct and indirect.

III. Write sentences in which a noun, a pronoun, a participle, an infinitive, and a clause, are each used as the subject of an infinitive.

256. RULE III. — *When the subject of a participle does not depend upon any other word in the sentence, it is in the possessive case or nominative absolute: possessive when the participle is used as a noun in a dependent construction, and absolute when the participle with its subject is used independently.*

(a) This rule is not to be found in any other grammar, but the student will find it verified by all correct sentences in which are found subjects of participles.

It must first be understood that, as the rule implies, the subject of a participle may depend upon some other word; when it does, it is *always governed by the other word, not by the participle*. Thus, the subject of a participle may be also —

- (1) *The subject of a finite verb*; as, "*Alice blushing answered yes.*"
- (2) *The object of a transitive verb*; as, "*We saw John stealing peaches.*"
- (3) *The complement of a copulative verb*; as, "*He is a man admired by us all.*"
- (4) *The object of a preposition*; as, "*Go to the woman standing in the door, and tell her to come in.*"
- (5) *In apposition*; as, "*Showalter, the gentleman making you the offer, is a very successful business man.*" "*He wrote to Jordan, the scientist having charge of the expedition.*"

257. In the following sentences the subjects of the participles do not depend upon any other words. In the first three, the participles are used as nouns in dependent constructions, and their subjects are therefore put in the possessive case; the subjects in the fourth and fifth are in

the nominative absolute, because the participles together with their subjects are used independently.

- (1) *Mary's* leaving surprised everybody.
- (2) I understand *your* quibbling with him.
- (3) We were not surprised at *his* accepting your proposition.
- (4) *Brown* coming in, we left the room.
- (5) Our *leader* having been disabled, our undertaking had to be abandoned.

258. Objective by Enallage.—By a figure of speech called *enallage*, the subject of a participle is often put in the objective when it should be in the possessive; but this construction should not be encouraged, since it is liable to make an ambiguous sentence.

259. *Point out the difference in meaning between the first four and the last four.*

- (1) The *writer* being a scholar is not doubted.
- (2) There is no harm in *women* studying politics.
- (3) No one ever heard of that *man* running for office.
- (4) *Brown* being a politician prevented his election.
- (1) The *writer's* being a scholar is not doubted.
- (2) There is no harm in *women's* studying politics.
- (3) No one ever heard of that *man's* running for office.
- (4) *Brown's* being a politician prevented his election.

260. The subject of a participle may be—

- (1) *A noun*; as, "The *train* having left us, we walked."
 - (2) *A pronoun*; as, "*He* appearing so sincere, we all believed him."
 - (3) *A participle*; as, "*Speaking* in public being much encouraged, we soon learned to speak with ease."
 - (4) *An infinitive*; as, "*To whisper* having been forbidden, we had nothing left but to work."
 - (5) *A clause*; as, "*That he could not have done it himself* having been established, let us proceed to the next proposition."
- (a) There is but little liability to error in using either nouns or pronouns according to this Rule.

261. RULE IV.—*The object of an active transitive verb is in the objective case.*

God rules the *world*, *which* he created.

He came to learn *grammar*.

The limb struck *George* and *me*.

Whom did he call?

Then there was a little girl peeling *potatoes*.

(a) Not only finite verbs, but infinitives and participles as well, when transitive and active, govern objects.

(b) No intransitive verb can have an object.

(c) No verb in the passive voice can govern an object.

(d) For the Indirect Object see Article 186; for the Resultant Object see Article 189; for Objective without a governing word see Article 188.

(e) **The object of a transitive verb may be —**

(1) *A noun*; as, "Mollie solved the *problem*."

(2) *A pronoun*; as, "They saw *me*."

(3) *An infinitive phrase*; as, "I like *to play*;" "He wants *to go to town with the children*."

(4) *A participle, or a participial phrase*; as, "He prohibited *whispering*;" "They forbade our *proceeding another step*."

(5) *A sentence*; as, "We believe *they are mistaken*."

(f) This rule is violated most frequently when the object of a transitive verb is a noun and a pronoun; as, "He saw Edith and *I*;" "Mary called Henry and *I*." This is a very gross error, and the ability to avoid it altogether will more than compensate for the careful study it will require.

262. Point out and describe the objects in the following sentences:—

(1) Anna plucked the prettiest flower.

(2) We saw John driving the nail.

(3) We went to see Mary Anderson.

(4) My brother likes to study anything, but I like running and jumping better than studying anything.

(5) He knows how to make mountains out of mole hills.

(6) He ordered the horse to be saddled.

(7) Let me give you my pencil.

(8) Jacob said, I will serve thee seven years for Rachel.

(9) I was offered a lucrative position.

(10) I was promised a car.

(11) Do not let an imperfect understanding satisfy you, but make yourself master of all the details.

(12) We called them heroes.

263. *Fill the following blanks with suitable pronouns, giving reasons for your selections:—*

- (1) I found — assisting —.
- (2) Success in that battle made — a soldier.
- (3) I shall ask — the question when I see —.
- (4) They will not hurt Frank and —.
- (5) They invited my brother and —.
- (6) — — he had most injured he had the greatest reason to love.
- (7) — — prejudice has biased, you can never convince.
- (8) — did you elect?
- (9) We heard — you nominated.
- (10) We both wanted the position, but he does not want either John or —.
- (11) — that honor — I will honor.

264. *Write sentences illustrating the direct object, or the accusative objective; the indirect object, or the dative objective; the resultant, or factitive objective; and the objective without a governing word.*

265. RULE V.—*A noun or pronoun used as the object of a preposition is in the objective case.*

The ruins of the *Parthenon* stand upon the *Acropolis*, in the city of *Athens*. The temple of *fame* stands upon the *grave*; the fire that burns there is kindled from the *ashes* of great men.

266. The object of a preposition may be —

- (1) *A noun*; as, "He came from the *field*."
- (2) *A pronoun*; as, "Speak to *me*."
- (3) *A participle*; as, "Oblige me by *reading* this letter."
- (4) *An infinitive*; as, "She did nothing but *cry*." "I am about to *leave*."
- (5) *An adjective*; as, "On *high*."
- (6) *An adverb*; as, "From *here* to *there* is ten feet."
- (7) *A prepositional phrase*; as, "From *over the sea*."
- (8) *A subordinate sentence*; as, "He hath given assurance unto man in *that he hath raised him from the dead*."

(a) This rule is never violated in the use of a noun, but it requires great care to use our pronouns according to it.

(b) **Nouns of time, distance, measure, etc.**, are said to be in the objective case without a governing word; as, "The lake is a *mile* wide;" "The rule is a *foot* long;" "The child is ten *years* old;" but it is better to regard such nouns as governed by prepositions unexpressed. The sentences mean: "The lake is wide *to the extent* of a mile;" "The rule is long *to the length* of a foot;" "The child is old *to the extent* of ten years."

These prepositions are omitted for two reasons: because they make awkward expressions if expressed; and because the relation is clear without them. The noun, to be in the objective case, must be governed by some word.

(c) The object of a preposition follows it when the sentence is not inverted. It frequently precedes the preposition in poetry; as, "From peak to peak, the rattling *crag*s among;" and in prose when we wish to call particular attention to the object; as, "His *conduct* we did not approve of."

The relative *that* precedes the preposition that governs it; as, "He is the man *that* I came with."

267. Name the objects of the prepositions in the following sentences: —

- (1) To him who in the love of nature holds
Communion with her visible forms, she speaks
A various language.
- (2) The eulogium pronounced on the character of the State of South Carolina, by the honorable gentleman, for her revolutionary and other merits, meets my hearty concurrence. — *Daniel Webster*.
- (3) Into the jaws of Death, into the mouth of Hell,
Rode the Six Hundred. — *Tennyson*.
- (4) At midnight in his guarded tent,
The Turk lay dreaming of the hour
When Greece, her knee in supppliance bent,
Should tremble at his power. — *Halleck*.
- (5) But now no sound of laughter was heard among the foes,
A wild and wrathful clamor from all the vanguard rose.
- (6) Run to your houses, fall upon your knees,
Pray to the gods to intermit the plague
That needs must light on this ingratitude. — *Shakespeare*.
- (7) The trees are now in their fullest foliage and brightest verdure; the woods are gay with the clustered flowers of the laurel; the air is perfumed by the sweetbriar and wild rose; the meadows are enamelled with clover blossoms; while the young apple, the peach, and the plum begin to swell, and the cherry to glow among the green leaves. — *Irving*.

268. *Fill the following blanks with suitable pronouns, giving reasons for your selections: —*

- (1) He sat by — and —.
- (2) — did you give it to?
- (3) Mary came with — and —.
- (4) He spoke to Susan and —.
- (5) — did you complain to?
- (6) — was it from?
- (7) Between you and —, I do not care what he says.
- (8) There are still a few, who like — and —, drink nothing but water.
- (9) He sat between — and —.
- (10) She looks neither like her other brother, nor —.
- (11) He is the man — I told you about.
- (12) This life has joys for you and —.
- (13) All are gone but — and —.
- (14) He bought it for Kate and —.
- (15) They sat just behind — and —.

269. **RULE VI.** — *A noun or pronoun used as the complement of a copulative verb is in the same case as its subject.*

EXCEPTION. — When the subject of a copulative participle is possessive, the complement is nominative.

(a) This rule is usually stated incorrectly, so as to be applicable only to the nominative case; but it applies to the objective case when the copula is an infinitive with its subject different from that of the finite verb; and it applies to the nominative absolute case when the copula is a participle having its subject in the nominative absolute.

(1) In the Nominative: —

That man is a *soldier*.

If I were *you* I would try to be a *musician*.

Who is he?

He is not the *man that* you thought he was.

(2) In the Objective: —

He thought me to be *her*.

We want the boy to become a *preacher*.

We expect them to be our *companions*.

If I were you I would get him to be a *musician*.

In applying this rule to the objective case we must determine the case of the subject of the infinitive by Rule II. Thus, in "I want *him* to be a *scholar*," *scholar* is objective because *him*, the subject of the infinitive, being different from the subject of the finite verb, is objective; but in "I want to be a *scholar*," *scholar* is in the nominative case, to agree with the subject of *to be*, which is *I*, the subject of the finite verb.

(3) *In the Nominative Absolute Case:—*

In the sentence, "I believe him because *he* is a *scholar*," *scholar* is in the nominative case to agree with *he*, the subject of *is*. In the sentence meaning the same thing, "*He* being a *scholar*, I believe him," the copulative verb *is* has been changed to the participle *being*; and although *he* has not changed its form, it has become nominative absolute in case, because it is the subject of the participle. *Scholar*, the complement of *being*, must be either in the nominative, or nominative absolute; and since there is no reason for supposing this an exception to the rule, it should be parsed in the nominative absolute case.

270. Explanation of Exception.—"That he is a *scholar* has never been questioned." In this, the subject of the subordinate clause is *he*, and the complement is *scholar*, both in the nominative case. But the clause is abridged by dropping *that*, changing the finite verb *is* to the participle *being*, changing the nominative *he* to the possessive *his*, and leaving *scholar* unchanged. Then we have, "*His being a scholar* has never been questioned." *His*, the subject of *being*, is evidently *possessive*, but *why* is *scholar*, the complement, *nominative*?

(1) *Scholar* was *nominative* before the clause was abridged.

(2) No change has taken place in the process of abridgment to cause any change in its case, unless it should follow the general rule and become possessive when the subject becomes possessive.

(3) It is not possessive, for it does not have the possessive sign, neither does it denote possession.

(4) Therefore "*scholar*," or the complement in all such cases, is *nominative*.

(a) The complement of the copulative verb is always a noun, or an adjective, or some expression so used, and is called the *attributive complement*. The pupil should be careful to distinguish between the *attributive complement* and the *objective complement*. The attributive complement refers to the *same person* or *thing* as the subject; as, "He is a *soldier*;" "The man is a *mason*;" "He expects me to become a *musician*;" but the *objective complement* refers to a *different person* or *thing*; as,

"John killed a *snake*;" "She bought a *house*;" "Jones sold his *farm*."

(b) Be careful to distinguish intransitive verbs that are used as impure copulas followed by attributive complements, from transitive verbs followed by objective complements.

(c) The passive voice is often followed by attributive complements; as, "He was appointed *judge*."

271. *Point out the complements in the following sentences, and tell the cases of those that are nouns and pronouns:—*

- (1) The world is but a stage, all the men and women merely players.
- (2) My friend was appointed chairman.
- (3) She walks a queen.
- (4) He is a farmer.
- (5) He will become a better man.
- (6) To study correctly is to learn.
- (7) The general opinion is that Mrs. Clearwater planned the murder.
- (8) Now I am myself again.
- (9) Cheating is stealing.
- (10) He appears to be a Canadian.

272. *Fill the blanks with suitable pronouns, giving reasons for your selections:—*

- (1) It was not —; it was either — or —.
- (2) Was it — you meant?
- (3) Was it — or — that you called?
- (4) If I were —, I would send for the doctor.
- (5) If it were —, I would act differently.
- (6) It was — I sought.
- (7) I knew it was —, but she thought it to be —.
- (8) — do you think me to be?
- (9) — do men say that I am?
- (10) It was — — you said it was.
- (11) — do you take us to be?
- (12) He is the man — I thought you to be.
- (13) He is the man — I thought to be you.
- (14) No matter — the vanquished be.
- (15) It was not — that came for us.
- (16) I know you to be —.
- (17) Its being — should make no difference.
- (18) There is no doubt of its being —.

273. RULE VII. *A noun or pronoun in apposition is in the same case as the noun or pronoun it explains.*

274. Apposition is the use of a substantive without a connecting element, to limit another in the same case and of the same meaning; as, "Brown, the banker;" "It is pleasant to see the stars;" "It is evident that she is insane;" "In her brother Absalom's house."

(a) A predicate noun, although meaning the same as the subject, is not in apposition. The copulative verb is the connecting element; as, "Harry is a farmer."

(b) The appositive term is the one that explains the other.

(c) The appositive noun usually follows the one explained, but may come before it; as, "*Child of the sun, refulgent summer comes.*"—Thomson.

(d) *A noun in any case may have a noun in apposition with it.*

(1) *In the nominative*; as, "Hope, the balm of life, soothes us under misfortune;" "The mountain, *Vesuvius*, poured forth a torrent of lava."

(2) *In the nominative absolute*; as, "Brown, the minister, having told us, we believed it;" "John, you little rascal, what did you do it for?"

(3) *In the objective*; as, "We saw Forrest, the great tragedian, in Hamlet;" "I sat by Jones, the harness-maker."

(4) *In the possessive*; as, "William the Conqueror's victory at the battle of Hastings decided the fate of England."

(e) Apposition, or identification in language, is much more comprehensive than is usually supposed. It belongs, not to substantives alone, but also to verbs, adjectives, adverbs, phrases, and clauses. "Come here where we are." *Where we are* is identical with *here*. "Let us start now, while it is cool." *While it is cool* is in apposition with *now*. "There where the accident occurred." *Where the accident occurred* is in apposition with *there*. "He has sunk to the lowest depths of disgrace, to the convict's cell." *To the convict's cell* is in apposition with *to the lowest depths of disgrace*. "Let him who is perfect, who has no faults, throw the first stone." *Who has no faults* is in apposition with *who is perfect*, etc.

(f) The word *as* frequently introduces an explanatory term; as, "Electricity, as a motive force, promises great results;" "Shakespeare, as a dramatic artist, has no equal;" etc. In such cases, some regard *as* as merely an expletive, and parse the following term in apposition with the preceding; but it seems preferable to consider *as* in such cases as a preposition governing the noun that follows.

(g) The word *and* is frequently used without conjunctive force when it precedes an explanatory term ; as, " We believe in Christ and *him* crucified." In such cases consider *and* merely as an expletive, and the term following it in apposition with the one preceding.

(h) The appositive term must always agree in case with the one that it explains, but it need not agree with it in any other property, as may be seen from the following examples : " The Kenite tribe, the *descendants* of Hobab." — *Milman's History of the Jews*. " But how can you, a *soul*, still hunger and thirst ? " " Who seized the wife to me, his *host*, and fled."

(i) The word *of* is frequently followed by a term meaning the same as the preceding ; as, " The month of *December* ; " " The city of *Boston* ; " meaning, " The month, *December* ; " " The city, *Boston* ; " but in such cases the term following *of* must be parsed as its object.

(j) A pronoun of the first or second person is often followed by the appositive ; as, " I, *John* ; " " But what is that to you, *receivers* ? "

(k) When a noun in the possessive case is limited by another noun in apposition with it, the possessive sign is put to the noun immediately preceding the name of the object possessed ; as, " Bring me John the *Baptist's* head."

(l) A noun may be in apposition with a *sentence* or *phrase* ; as, " *He promised me the use of his library, a kindness* for which I am very thankful." " *To leave so abruptly, an act* which we could not explain, would certainly arouse suspicion."

(m) A distributive term in the singular is frequently used to explain, in some way, a comprehensive plural ; as, " Go ye, every *man*, unto his city ; " " They love *one* another." Such sentences as the last are not easily disposed of. *One* and *another*, or the nouns they limit, are sometimes parsed as in apposition with *they*. But this cannot be ; for, evidently, the noun that is limited by *one* is in the nominative case, but the noun that is limited by *another* is in the objective case, the meaning of the sentence being " *Each one person loves the other person.*" There is a case of apposition here, but it is one sentence in apposition with another sentence. The sentence, " *They love,*" is explained by the sentence, " *Each one person loves the other person.*"

(n) In cases of *enumeration*, or *specification*, parts are often put in apposition with the whole ; as, " *The whole army fled, some* one way, *some* another."

(o) A proper noun frequently either explains, or is explained by, a common noun ; as, " The poet, *Milton*," or " *Milton*, the poet ; " " The fiery mountain, *Vesuvius*," or " *Vesuvius*, the mountain of fire."

(p) The *resultant* or *factive objective* is in apposition with the direct object ; as, " Make me a *child* again, just for to-night ; " " We appointed *Harrison* chairman."

275. *Point out the appositives in the following sentences:—*

- (1) Hope, the star of life, never sets.
- (2) Delightful task, to rear the tender thought.
- (3) He rescued the child from the burning building, an act of heroism that deserves recognition.
- (4) There stood an unsold captive in the mart,
A gray-haired and majestic old man.
- (5) This is my answer: not that I love Cæsar less, but that I love Rome more.
- (6) It is he, my old friend and benefactor.
- (7) A doubt that any one should challenge his right had never crossed his mind.
- (8) I count this thing to be grandly true,
That a noble deed is a step toward God.
- (9) True wit is like a precious stone,
Dug from the Indian mine,
Which boasts two various powers in one,
To cut as well as shine. — *Swift*.
- (10) O Caledonia; stern and wild;
Meet nurse for a poetic child!
Land of brown heath and shaggy wood;
Land of the mountain and the flood;
Land of my sires! What mortal hand
Can e'er untie the filial band
That knits me to thy rugged strand! — *W. Scott*.

276. *Justify or condemn the following sentences, giving reasons:—*

- (1) We will make a covenant, thee and me.
- (2) The word came not to Esau, the hunter, him that stayed at home; but to Jacob, the plain man, he that dwells in tents.
- (3) Power is given to the man of God, he that is led by the spirit of God.
- (4) He deems God to be the creditor, he to whom the debt should be paid.
- (5) Christ and him crucified is the alpha and omega.
- (6) We believe in Christ, he who is the head of the church.
- (7) Our Shepherd, Him who is styled King of Saints, will surely come.

277. *RULE VIII. — A noun or pronoun limiting another noun signifying a different thing is in the possessive case.*

278. Express the relation of possession in the most appropriate manner. Use either the possessive sign or a phrase introduced by *of*, according to euphony and the best usage.

279. Rewrite the following, making any change you think necessary: —

(1) His misfortunes awaken nobodys pity, though no ones ability ever went further for others good.

(2) A mothers tenderness and a fathers care are natures gifts for mans advantages.

(3) Five year's interest remained unpaid.

(4) Six month's wages will then be due.

(5) I admire Moses's law as much as Socrates's philosophy.

(6) Marcy's letter, the Secretary of War, is a masterly reply.

(7) John's brother's wife's sister married a burglar.

(8) It is not your business or any body else's.

(9) The wife of the captain of the *Alabama* died this morning.

(10) Reed & Kellogg's Grammar. Reed's & Kellogg's Grammar. Reed & Kellogg's Grammars. Reed's & Kellogg's Grammars. (Give meanings.)

(11) Brown, Smith and Jones's wife are always seen together.

280. RULE IX. — *A noun or pronoun used independently is in the nominative absolute case.*

(a) This rule covers *Exclamation*, *Address*, *Pleonasm*, and *Inscription*.

(b) The subject of a participle is also in the nominative absolute case, but it is explained under Rule III.

(c) For lists of all nominative absolute constructions, see Article 154.

(d) *Exclamation*, *Address*, and *Pleonasm* are all indicative of strong emotion, but they should be sparingly employed, as excessive use of them weakens the style of composition.

(e) This rule applies to pronouns, but rarely; as, "*Miserable they!*" — *Thomson*. "*O! Rare we!*" — *Cooper*.

(f) All names inscribed on coins, monuments, or signs; all titles of books; all headings, superscriptions, and subscriptions, are in the *nominative absolute case by inscription*.

(g) When the name of a person addressed is put after the sentence, as, "I appeal to you, *Mr. Chairman*," we cannot tell whether to parse it as absolute by address, or in apposition with the preceding pronoun. In a declinable language, such a noun as the one above would as likely be

in the accusative (objective), in apposition with the preceding pronoun, as in the vocative (nominative absolute).

(h) Pleonasm is used when some object is of more importance to our thought or feeling than what we wish to say about it; as, "The *boy!* Oh, where was he?"

(i) The infinitive may be used by pleonasm; as, "*To be*, or not *to be*, that's the question."

(j) In parsing nouns and pronouns under the rule the pupil should be required to state their constructions *definitely*, whether they are used by *exclamation, address, pleonasm, or inscription.*

281. *State definitely the case and construction of every noun and pronoun in the following selections:—*

- (1) He that hath, to him shall be given.
- (2) He that is holy, let him be holy still.
- (3) The North and the South, thou hast created them.
- (4) I should not like to see her limping back, poor beast.
- (5) Oh! deep enchanted prelude of repose,
The Eden of bliss, the twilight of our woes. — *Campbell.*
- (6) That very law that moulds the tear
And bids it trickle from its source,
That law preserves the earth a sphere,
And guides the planets in their course. — *Rogers.*
- (7) To be resigned when ills betide,
Patient when favors are denied,
And pleased with favors given;
Dear Chloe, this is wisdom's part,
This is that incense of the heart,
Whose fragrance smells to heaven. — *Dr. Cotton.*

282. RULE XIV. — *A pronoun agrees with its antecedent in person, number, and gender.*

(a) It will require the utmost diligence on the part of the pupil to use his pronouns according to this rule, but this he must do, if he expects to speak what will be listened to, or write what will be read.

Cool is *thy* brow, my son, and I am chill
As to *my* bosom I have tried to press *thee*. — *Willis.*

Woodman, spare that tree,
Touch not a single bough;
In youth *it* sheltered *me*,
And *I'll* protect *it* now.

'Twas *my* forefather's hand
That placed *it* near *his* cot;
Then, woodman, let *it* stand;
Thy axe shall harm *it* not. — *Morris*.

283. *In applying this rule, remember :—*

(a) Two or more singular antecedents connected by *or*, or *nor*, must be represented by a singular pronoun ; as " When he shoots a partridge, a woodcock, or a pheasant, he gives *it* away."

(b) When a pronoun cannot fully represent its antecedent in gender, the masculine pronoun is to be preferred ; as, " No boy or girl could do *his* work better."

(c) The pronoun *it* is often preferable to represent the name of a young child or of an animal whose sex is not definitely distinguished ; as, " The child sat by *its* mother ;" " The nightingale sings most sweetly when *it* sings in the night."

(d) Masculine or feminine pronouns represent the names of inanimate objects personified.

To him who in the love of nature holds
Communion with *her* visible forms, *she* speaks
A various language.

(e) A collective noun conveying the idea of unity must be represented by a pronoun in the third person, singular number, and neuter gender ; as, " The mob swept everything in *its* way." A collective noun conveying the idea of plurality must be represented by a plural pronoun, whose gender is determined by the sex of the objects denoted.

A collective noun conveys the idea of *unity* when it refers to the objects as forming *one whole* ; and it conveys the idea of *plurality* when it refers to the *individuals* of the group.

284. *Fill the blanks with suitable pronouns, giving reasons :—*

(1) Many a man looks back on the days of — youth with melancholy regret.

(2) The orator's tongue should be agreeable to the ears of — hearers.

(3) If we deprive an animal of instinct, — will be unable to take care of —.

(4) If any member of the congregation wishes to connect — with this church, — will please come forward while the brethren sing.

(5) I like the molasses, for — tasted as good as honey.

- (6) The earth is my mother, and I will recline upon — bosom.
 (7) To persecute a truly religious denomination, will only make — flourish better.
 (8) The government will have cause to change — orders.
 (9) The cabinet seemed to be divided in — sentiments.
 (10) The cabinet was distinguished for — wise measures.
 (11) Egypt was glad when they took their departure, for — was afraid of them.
 (12) Every herb, every flower, and every animal shows the wisdom of Him who made —.
 (13) Every governor and magistrate does as — thinks best.
 (14) If any boy or girl be absent, — will have to go to the foot of the class.
 (15) No man or woman is able to get rid of — vices without a struggle.
 (16) Poverty and wealth have each — own temptations.

285. Review of Pronouns.

(1) Name the three uses of the pronoun and the three corresponding classes. (2) Define and illustrate each. (3) What is the antecedent of a pronoun? (4) What may the antecedent be? (5) Name and illustrate the sub-classes of personal pronouns. (6) What is the use of declensions? (7) Give several principles commonly violated in the use of pronouns. (8) What is a direct interrogative pronoun? (9) An indirect interrogative pronoun? (10) Illustrate. (11) In what kind of a sentence may each be found? (12) Define a conjunctive or relative pronoun. (13) Illustrate. (14) How does a relative differ from an indirect interrogative? (15) Name and illustrate the sub-classes of relative pronouns. (16) In what are personals and relatives alike? (17) In what are they different. (18) For what kind of objects may each of the relatives, *who*, *which*, and *that*, be used? (19) Name, define, and illustrate two kinds of relative clauses. (20) What relative is required in each? (21) Explain the connecting use of a relative pronoun. (22) Name three nominative constructions and five objective constructions, illustrating each with (a) Personal pronoun of the third person, singular number, feminine gender. (b) Personal pronoun of the first person, plural number, common gender. (c) Direct interrogative pronoun *who*. (d) Direct interrogative pronoun *what*. (e) Indirect interrogative pronoun *who*. (f) Indirect interrogative pronoun *what*. (g) Relative pronoun *that* in a restrictive clause. (h) Relative pronoun *who* in explanatory clause. (i) Relative pronoun *which* in explanatory clause.

THE ADJECTIVE.

286. We have already found that some objects differ so much that it is necessary to put them in different classes and to give them different names; as, *man, rose, tree*. We may now observe also that objects belonging to the same class have different *qualities* or *attributes*, which it is often necessary for us to name; and also that many times we wish to *point out* or *refer to* an object, without either naming its qualities or applying a proper name to it. Hence arises another **part of speech**, called the **Adjective**, by which we may refer to an object or name its qualities.

287. *An Adjective is a word used to limit a noun or pronoun so as to point out or refer to an object, or to name one of its qualities; as, "this book," "four boys," "an apple," "large book," "lazy boy," "sweet apples."*

CLASSES OF ADJECTIVES.

288. Since adjectives limit substantives in two ways, as illustrated above, there arise two general classes of adjectives:—

289. *A Descriptive Adjective is one that limits a substantive so as to denote a quality of an object; as, "icy mountains," "heavy hearts," "laughing eyes," "strong arms."*

290. *A Definitive Adjective is one that limits a substantive so as merely to point out or refer to an object without denoting quality; as, "an ox," "no man," "fifty guns," "those geese."*

SUB-CLASSES OF ADJECTIVES.

291. *Descriptive or qualifying adjectives have the three sub-classes:—*

292. (1) Common, any ordinary quality word not derived from a proper name; as, "*good fruit*," "*sweet oranges*," "*cold water*," "*honorable men*," "*amiable disposition*," "*virtuous women*."

293. (2) Proper, one derived from a proper name; as, "*Arabian Nights*," "*Grecian armies*," "*Turkish despotism*."

294. (3) Participial, one derived from a verb; as, "*throbbing hearts*," "*amusing stories*," "*twinkling stars*," "*consecrated spots*," "*defended rights*," "*deadened sensibility*."

295. Definitive or merely limiting adjectives have the three sub-classes:—

296. (1) Articles, *A* or *An* and *The*.

(a) *The* is called the *definite* article, and *A* or *An* the *indefinite* article.

(b) *A* is used before consonants, and *An* before vowels; as, "*a man*," "*a cow*," "*an ape*," "*an ox*."

297. (2) Pronominals, those that may be used substantively; as, "*Some* were invited; *others* were not; but *all* were welcome."

(a) It is better in most cases to supply the limited noun in parsing.

(b) The following and some others are usually called pronominal adjectives: *This*, *that*, *these*, *those*; *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*; *much*, *little*; *some*, *all*, *such*, *own*, *any*, *none*, *one*, *both*, *other*, *another*; *certain*, *divers*, *else*; *former*, *latter*, *first*, *last*.

(c) Pronominals are divided into four classes:—

(1) *Demonstratives*; as, *this*, *that*, *these*, *those*.

(2) *Distributives*; as, *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*.

(3) *Indefinites*; as, *all*, *any*, *some*, *few*.

(4) *Interrogative*; as, *which*, *what*.

298. (3) Numerals, those that suggest number.

(a) *Definite*; as, *four*, *six*, *forty*; *fourth*, *sixth*, *fortieth*; *fourfold*, *sixfold*, *forty fold*.

(b) *Indefinite*; as, *several*, *few*, *many*.

(c) The *definite numerals* are further divided into:—

(1) *Ordinals*, those denoting orders in a series; as, *second*, *tenth*.

(2) *Cardinals*, those that state merely the number of objects ; as, *two, ten*.

(3) *Multiplicatives*, those that tell how many fold ; as, *twofold, tenfold*.

REMARKS ON DEFINITIVE ADJECTIVES.

299.

I. ARTICLES.

(a) Articles are sometimes classed as a separate part of speech, but they differ so little from definitive adjectives that they should be parsed as such.

(b) *The* limits either singular or plural nouns ; *A* or *An*, except in a few cases, limits only singular nouns.

(c) The noun is used without an article when we wish to refer to a whole class ; as, "Man is mortal." The indefinite article is used when we wish to refer indefinitely to *any* one of a class ; as, "A man is not so strong as an ox." And the definite article is used when we speak *definitely* of a part of a class, one or more than one ; as, "The child broke the dishes."

300.

II. PRONOMINALS.

(1) DEMONSTRATIVES.

(a) *This* points out an object that is near in time or place, or nearer than some other object referred to ; as, "This book ;" "This pen (in my hand is better than *that* (on the table before me) ;" "This age (Shakespeare's) was better than *that* (Homer's)."

(b) *That* points out an object distant in time or place, or not so near as another object referred to and pointed out by *this*. In many languages all the adjectives are inflected to agree with their nouns in person, number, gender, and case ; but *this* and *that* are the only English adjectives that are inflected, and these only to denote *number*. *These* and *those* are respectively the plurals of *this* and *that*.

(c) *These* should be used to point out more than one object when *this* would be used if there were but one ; *those* should be used to point out more than one object when *that* would be used if there were but one. Let the pupil thoroughly understand the use of *these* and *those* so that he may never misuse them.

(d) *Former* and *latter* are used to denote respectively the *first* and *second* of two objects previously mentioned.

(e) *Both* refers to two objects, either *collectively*, as, "Both boys can lift the log," or *individually*, as, "Both boys came."

(f) *Same* denotes the identical object ; as, "He is the *same* man."

(g) *Yon* or *yonder* may denote any distant object that is in view ; as, "Yon house," "Yonder mountain."

(2) DISTRIBUTIVES.

(a) *Each* in connection with *other* applies to one and also to the other of two objects ; as, "*Each* helped the other." *Each* without the word *other* is individually applicable to more than two ; as, "*Each* soldier stood boldly for the right."

(b) *Every* denotes all of a class taken individually ; as, "*Every* man believed her."

(c) *Either* is applicable to one or the other of two ; as, "*Either* book will satisfy me."

(d) *Neither* means *not either* ; as, "The man and his wife rose, but *neither* spoke."

(3) INDEFINITES.

(a) *All* includes the whole class, and may denote that the objects are to be taken either *collectively* or *individually* ; as, "*All* the men (working together) can lift the log ;" "*All* men are mortal," that is, individually they must die.

(b) *Any* is applicable to one or more of a class, or to a portion of a quantity ; as, "*Any* man or men," "*Any* coffee."

(c) *Another* or *other* means *not the same as this* or *not the same as these* ; as, "*Another* man," "*Other* men."

(d) *Certain* denotes *one* or *some of a class* ; as, "A *certain* woman," "*Certain* women."

(e) *Divers* means *different, various, or numerous* ; as, "*Divers* colors," "*Divers* kinds," "*Divers* places."

(f) *Enough* denotes a *sufficiency* ; as, "*Enough* men," "*Enough* bread."

(g) *Few* denotes a *small number* ; as, "*Few* were chosen."

(h) *Little* denotes a *small portion* ; as, "A *little* sleep," "*Little* money," "*Little* sense."

(i) *Many* denotes a *large number* ; as, "*Many* crimes."

(j) *Much* denotes *large in quantity* ; as, "*Much* improvement."

(k) *No* means *not any*, either of number or quantity ; as, "*No* man," "*No* silver."

(l) *None* means *not one* or *not any*. When one of a number is referred to, it is better to say *no one* ; when more than one, or a part of a quantity, use *none* ; as, "*None* (of men) are here, or *no one* is here," "*None* (of bread) is left."

(m) *One* is generally used in connection with *another*; as, "They help *one another*." It is difficult to parse such a sentence as it stands. The meaning is, "Every *one* person helps *another* person."

(n) *Own* is used to express *possession more emphatically*; as, "My *own* land."

(o) *Several* denotes any small number more than two; as, "*Several* times."

(p) *Some* denotes *number or quantity indefinitely*; as, "*Some* books," "*Some* wheat."

(q) *Sundry* means *various*; as, "At *sundry* times."

301.

III. NUMERALS.

(a) A *cardinal* adjective answers the question, *How many?* as, *one, two, three, four*, etc.

(b) An *ordinal* adjective answers the question, *Which one in the series?* and may usually be known by its form; as, *first, second, third, fourth*, etc. But an adjective is ordinal, regardless of its form, whenever it marks the position of an object in a series; as, "Read page *ten*," or "Read the *tenth* page."

(c) See the indefinite numerals, *several, few, and many*, under the indefinite pronominals, where they are commonly classed.

302. Classes of Adjectives with Reference to the Manner of Modification.

303. The classification of adjectives into descriptive and definitive is based upon the adjective itself, — the idea it expresses. The same adjective does not belong to both classes. Thus, *strong* is a descriptive, and *yonder*, a *definitive*, adjective.

304. But according to another classification, on the basis of the manner of modification, the same adjective may belong to any one of three classes.

305. It may modify a substantive directly. It is then called a **direct adjective**. It may complete a copulative verb and at the same time modify its subject. It is then a **predicate adjective**. It may modify the direct object in such a way as to express a quality that is the result of the verb's action. Then it is a **resultant adjective**.

306. A **Direct Adjective** is one that modifies a substantive directly; as, "A beautiful child," "A strong arm."

(a) A noun in any construction may be modified by a direct adjective.

307. A **Predicate Adjective** is one that completes the predicate and modifies the subject; as, "The child is beautiful," "His arm is strong."

(a) Bear in mind that a *predicate adjective* always modifies the subject and completes a predicate. In "He is a strong man," we may say *strong* is an adjective in the predicate, but it is not a predicate adjective.

308. A **Resultant Adjective** is one that modifies the direct object in such a manner as to express a result of the verb's action; as, "Fresh air made the child beautiful," "Exercise made the man's arm strong."

(a) *Resultant* are often called *factive* adjectives.

(b) Since only an active verb can take a direct object, *passive verbs* are never followed by *resultant adjectives*.

(c) Since a resultant adjective modifies a noun *with reference to a verb*, it is sometimes called an *adverbial adjective*.

(d) When a verb followed by a resultant adjective is changed to the passive voice, the *resultant adjective* becomes a *predicate adjective*; as, "He painted the ceiling blue," "The ceiling was painted blue."

309. Use each of the following adjectives: *old, cold, long, infirm, reckless, rich, rare, right, strong, mighty, faithless, innocent, beautiful, famous, furious, frantic, wild, worthy, wise, mindful, mad, mighty, sick, well, angry, weak, strong, acceptable, agreeable, patient, intelligent, intelligible* :—

(1) *As direct*, (2) *As Predicate*, (3) *As Resultant*.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

310. Most qualities of objects exist in different degrees. Some men are *wise*; others, *wiser*; and still others, *wisest*. Some landscapes are *beautiful*; others, *more beautiful*; others, *most beautiful*. This difference in the degree of

quality is expressed by a variation in the form of the adjective, called *comparison*.

311. *Comparison is a variation in the form of the adjective to express different degrees of quality ; as, long, longer, longest ; good, better, best ; profitable, more profitable, most profitable.*

DEGREES OF COMPARISON.

312. There are three degrees formed by the comparison of the adjective.

313. *The Positive is the simple form of the adjective, used when an object is not compared with any other ; as, Cold days, good deeds, practical lessons.*

314. *The Comparative is the form of the adjective that expresses a higher or lower degree than the positive, used when two objects are compared ; as, Colder days, better deeds, more practical lessons ; or, less cold days, less good deeds, less practical lessons.*

315. *The Superlative is the form of the adjective that expresses the highest or lowest degree, used when any number of objects more than two are compared ; as, Coldest days, best deeds, most practical lessons ; or, least cold days, least good deeds, least practical lessons.*

KINDS OF COMPARISON.

316. There are two kinds of comparison, **Ascending** ; as, *valuable, more valuable, most valuable* ; and **Descending** ; as, *valuable, less valuable, least valuable*.

METHODS OF COMPARISON.

317. There are three methods of comparison : —

- (1) By different terminations ; as, *loud, louder, loudest.*
- (2) By different words ; as, *bad, worse, worst.*
- (3) By prefixes ; *more, most ; less, least ; as, beautiful,*

more beautiful or less beautiful, most beautiful or least beautiful.

(a) Monosyllables are compared by changing the termination of the positive ; as, *loud, louder, loudest ; sweet, sweeter, sweetest.*

(b) Many dissyllables are compared like monosyllables ; as, *happy, happier, happiest.* (Y after a consonant is changed to i, before suffixing *er* or *est*.)

(c) Words of more than two syllables, and words of two syllables that could not easily be pronounced with *er* or *est* added to the positive, are compared by prefixing to the positive *more* or *less* for the comparative, and *most* or *least* for the superlative ; as, *practicable, more practicable, most practicable ; doubtful, less doubtful, least doubtful.* In parsing, *more, most, less* and *least* should not be separated from the following word.

(d) Descending comparison has but one method — by prefixing *less* and *least*.

(e) In poetry monosyllables are often compared by prefixes ; as, “A form *more fair*, a face *more sweet*.”

(f) The following adjectives are compared by **different words** : —

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Good,	Better,	Best.
Bad, evil, or ill,	Worse,	Worst.
Much or many,	More,	Most.
Little,	Less, or lesser,	Least.

(g) The following adjectives have **irregular terminations** : —

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Aft,	After,	Aftermost.
Far,	Farther,	Farthest, or Farthermost.
Hind,	Hinder,	Hindmost, or Hindmost.
Late,	Later, or Latter,	Latest, or Last.
Low,	Lower,	Lowest, or Lowermost.

(h) The following adjectives are **defective** in their comparison : —

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Out (adv.),	Outer, Utter,	Outermost, Utmost.
In (prep.),	Inner,	Innermost, Inmost.
Up (adv.),	Upper,	Uppermost, Upmost.
—	Hither,	Hithermost.
—	Nether,	Nethermost.
Eld (obsolete),	Elder,	Eldest.
—	Under,	Undermost.

Rear,	———	Rearmost.
Front,	———	Frontmost.
Mid,	———	Midmost.
Middle,	———	Middlemost.
North, Northern,	———	Northmost, Northernmost.
South, Southern,	———	Southmost, Southernmost.
East, Eastern,	———	Eastmost, Easternmost.
West, Western,	———	Westmost, Westernmost.

(i) Adjectives representing qualities that cannot exist in different degrees do not ordinarily admit of comparison. These include :—

Almighty,	Extreme,	Infinite,	Safe,
Certain,	Fall,	Lawful,	Serene,
Chief,	False,	Leaden,	Solid,
Circular,	Filial,	Living,	Sound,
Conscious,	Fluid,	Natural,	Square,
Continual,	Free,	Paternal,	Subject,
Dead,	Godly,	Perfect,	Supreme,
Earthly,	Golden,	Perpetual,	Triangular,
Empty,	Gratuitous,	Reverend,	True,
Everlasting,	Heavenly,	Right,	Universal,
External,	Human,	Royal,	Void.

(1) While the above words cannot logically be compared, it is not very uncommon to find such rhetorical expressions as *fuller, rounder, most certain, most extreme*, etc., meaning, *nearer full, nearer round, most nearly certain*, etc.

(2) In parsing such words, do not compare them unless the comparative or superlative forms are used.

(j) It will be observed that the two kinds of comparison, *ascending* and *descending*, give us in reality *five degrees* for every adjective admitting of comparison ; as, *least cautious, less cautious, cautious, more cautious, most cautious*. These five — or three, if the two comparatives be regarded as one, and the two superlatives as one — are the only degrees that can be expressed by regularly inflecting the adjective ; but by combining it with other words, the number of degrees expressed may be indefinitely increased ; as, *somewhat cautious, very cautious, unusually cautious, remarkably cautious, exceedingly cautious, too little cautious, a little too cautious, uncautious, quite uncautious*. And after we exhaust all our combinations of words there are left a great many degrees of quality that cannot and need not be expressed, just as objects have a great many qualities not expressed at all by adjectives.

(k) The termination *ish* is sometimes given to some adjectives, forming what is called the *diminutive degree*, lower than the positive and yet

different from the *lower comparative* or the *lower superlative*; as, *reddish, bluish, greenish*.

318. Parsing of Adjectives.

- | | | |
|---------------|----------------|------------------|
| 1. Species. | 4. Comparison. | 6. Construction. |
| 2. Class. | 5. Degree. | 7. Rule. |
| 3. Sub-class. | | |

1. *That old man was sick.*

That, adj., def., pronom., demon., and limits *man*, R. X.

Old, adj., des., com., —old, older, oldest, —pos. degree, and limits *man*, R. X.

Sick, adj., pred., des., com., —sick, sicker, sickest, —pos. degree, and limits *man*, R. X.

(a) The teacher may have the oral parsing of nouns and pronouns given according to abridged model.

319.

SELECTIONS.

- A. (1) *The silent moon ascends the starry sky.*
 (2) *The weary traveller seeks a quiet rest.*
 (3) *The echoing hills gave back the rumbling thunder.*
 (4) *How many unkept promises and broken vows there are!*
 (5) *The summer breezes blow soft and cool.*
 (6) *The annual, autumnal, desolating fires have almost destroyed the well-timbered country.*
 (7) *Horses are as valuable as mules.*
 (8) *Homer was a greater poet than Virgil.*
 (9) *The sweetest flowers fringed the little stream.*
 (10) *On the grassy bank stood a tall waving ash, sound to the very top.*
 (11) *There are two pear trees in the second row.*
 (12) *Who else came?*
- B. (1) *A little learning is a dangerous thing!*
Drink deep, or taste not the Pierian spring.
 (2) *Hope springs eternal in the human breast.*
 (3) *But he thought of his sister, proud and cold,*
And his mother, vain of her rank and gold.
 (4) *The way was long, the wind was cold,*
The minstrel was infirm and old.
 (5) *How brilliant and mirthful the light of her eye,*
Like a star glancing out from the blue of the sky!

- (6) There *brighter* suns dispense *serener light*,
And *milder* moons imparadise the *night*.
- (7) Silver and gold have I *none*.
- (8) She cooked the steak *rare*.
- (9) They painted the fence *green*.
- (10) *Ancient* history is, for the *greater part*, a story filled with *wild-est* fables and *legends* most *incredible*.
- (11) The *hopeful* mind and *faithful* heart
Shall win and keep the *better part*.
- (12) *The sun that Brief December* day
Rose *cheerless* over hills of *gray*,
And, darkly circled, gave at noon
A *sadder* light than *waning moon*. — Whittier.

320. Outline of Adjectives.

1a. Kinds.

1b. Descriptive or Qualifying : *Sweet, golden, beautiful, awful, Asiatic, rushing.*

1c. Common : *Good, sour, black.*

2c. Proper : *Australian, Swiss.*

3c. Participial or Verbal : *Running, broken, educated.*

2b. Definitive or merely Limiting adjectives : *An ox. Each apple. Six dollars. That barn.*

1c. Article.

1d. Definite : *The.*

2d. Indefinite.

1e. *A*, before a consonant.

2e. *An*, before a vowel.

2c. Numeral.

1d. Indefinite ; as, *Several, few, many.*

2d. Definite.

1e. Cardinal : *One, twenty, one hundred.*

2e. Ordinal : *First, twentieth, one hundredth.*

3e. Multiplicative : *Twofold, threefold, tenfold.*

3c. Pronominal.

1d. Distributive : *Each, every, either, neither.*

2d. Demonstrative : *This, that, these, those.*

3d. Interrogative : *Which book will you have ? What reply did he make ?*

2a. Property or Comparison : A variation in form to express different degrees of quality.

1b. Kinds.

- 1c. Ascending.
- 2c. Descending.
- 2b. Degrees.
 - 1c. Positive: That expressed by the simple form of the adjective; as, *good, small, beautiful*.
 - 2c. Comparative: A higher or lower degree than the positive; as, *better, less good; smaller, less small; more beautiful, less beautiful*.
 - 3c. Superlative: The highest or lowest degree of quality; as, *best, least good; smallest, least small; most beautiful, least beautiful*.
- 3b. Methods.
 - 1c. By different terminations; as, *loud, louder, loudest*.
 - 2c. By different words; as, *good, better, best*.
 - 3c. By prefixes: more, most; less, least; as, *honest, more honest or less honest; most honest or least honest*.

SYNTAX OF ADJECTIVES.

321. Adjectives limit substantives.

322. *All liabilities to error in the use of adjectives may be named under the following heads: Choice, Number, Comparison, Position.*

323. 1. CHOICE. — *Care should be taken to select the adjective that most appropriately expresses the meaning intended.*

(a) See Dictionary and a book on synonyms for the adjectives, *awful, lovely, nice, splendid, elegant, terrible, grand, bad*.

(b) Do not use: *Good for well; less for fewer; or both with same or alike; as, both the same, both alike.*

(c) Never use an adjective for an adverb, or an adverb for an adjective; as, "*Extreme bad weather*;" "*She looks so sweetly*."

324. 2. NUMBER.

(a) Never use *them* for *those*.

(b) Do not use *these or those* instead of *this* or *that* before such nouns as *kind, sort, molasses*, etc.

(c) After numerals, the words *pair, couple, dozen, hundred, thousand*, etc., need not take the plural form; as, *four pair* of boots; *five dozen* peaches; *six couple* of dancers; *four hundred head* of sheep.

325. 3. COMPARISON. — The *comparative degree* is used when only *two* objects are compared; the *superlative*, when there are *more than two*; as, "He is the *taller* of the two;" "She is *more beautiful* than her sister;" "Socrates was the *wisest* of the Athenians;" "She is the *loveliest* of women."

326. RULES. — I. *The superlative degree is used when the object to which it relates is one of those with which it is compared*; as, "Eve was the *fairest* of women."

327. II. *The comparative degree is used when the object to which it relates is not included among those with which it is compared*; as, "Eve was *fairer* than any of her daughters."

(a) It would not be correct to say, either, *Eve was fairer than any woman*; or, *Eve was the fairest of her daughters*; because the first expression implies, either, that she was not a woman, or that she was fairer than herself; and the second implies that she was one of her daughters.

(b) In a series of coördinate adjectives differently compared, it is generally more elegant to place the shorter ones first; as, "She is younger, less hateful, and more beautiful, than her sister."

(c) AVOID: (1) Double comparatives and superlatives; as, *more wiser, most unkindest*, etc.

(2) Comparative and superlative forms of incomparable adjectives; as, *extremest, chiefest, truest, more perfect, less universal*, etc.

328. 4. POSITION. — *An adjective commonly comes just before the word it limits, but adjectives may follow their nouns.*

(1) When used to complete the predicate; as, "The way was *long*, the wind was *cold*."

(2) When the adjective is modified by a prepositional or infinitive phrase; as, "His mother, *vain of her rank and gold*;" "Apples *good to be eaten*."

(3) When the adjective modifies a pronoun; as, "*Who else* came?"

(4) When the adjective is *resultant*, or *factive*; as, "They made the stick *straight*."

(5) In poetry; as, "He thought of his sister, *proud and cold*."

(a) There are several other cases in which adjectives follow their nouns, but these are the principal ones.

(b) When the noun is limited by both an ordinal and a cardinal adjective, there is a question as to which should come first. Here authorities

have not agreed. Shall we say, the *first three*, or the *three first*? If we insist upon a strictly literal interpretation of the language, we are compelled to choose between two absurdities. It would be absurd to speak of the *first three*, unless there were also a second three, and it is absurd to speak of the *three first*, unless we have reference to three different series. Ordinarily, I think, a careful critic would have to allow either expression, but at present the best usage seems to put the ordinal first. But sometimes either is preferable to the other according to the meaning intended; thus, if there are two single columns of boys, and we wish to refer to the leaders, we should say the *two first* boys; but if there is one double column of boys, and we wish to refer to the first couple, we should say the *first two* boys.

(c) Adjectives frequently modify nouns understood; as, "Many [persons] are called, but few [persons] are chosen."

(d) A participial or infinitive phrase, or a clause, may be modified by a predicate adjective; as, *To see the stars is delightful. That he will come is not certain.* Sometimes the adjective modifies an entire sentence attributively; as, *Contrary to what commonly occurs, he has not come back any more.*

(e) An adjective sometimes seems to modify another adjective. It must then be parsed as an adverb, or the two must be parsed together as one adjective; as, *The iron is red hot. She wore a deep blue dress.*

(f) An adjective frequently modifies a noun as modified by some other word; as, *We keep no cheap goods. Here, no modifies goods as modified by cheap.*

(g) The adjectives, *like, nigh, near, and next* are frequently followed by *objectives*. It is better, in such cases, to call these words *prepositions* governing the following nouns or pronouns; as, *She is not like me. He lives near us.* Some grammarians prefer to call these words adjectives or adverbs, and supply the preposition *to* to govern the following objective.

329. Review of Adjectives.

(1) Show why we have adjectives. (2) Define adjective. (3) Name the two general classes of the adjective and define each. (4) Name and illustrate the sub-classes of each class. (5) What are the three classes of adjectives with reference to the manner of modification? (6) Define and illustrate each. (7) What is comparison? (8) Why are adjectives compared? (9) What adjectives can be compared? (10) In how many degrees may a quality exist? (11) How many of these are expressed by the adjective itself? (12) When do we use the positive degree, the comparative, the superlative? (13) Name and illustrate two kinds of comparison. (14) Three methods of comparison. (15) Name and illustrate the chief forms of error in the use of the adjective.

THE VERB.

330. 1. The snow *falls*.
 2. The boys *beat* their drums.
 3. All our tasks *have been finished*.
 4. *Have* all the gift of prophecy?
 5. We wish the child *to become* a scholar.
 6. The lady *speaking* to you is Lolita.

331. In these sentences the italicized words express relations between substances and attributes. *Falls, beat, have been finished*, and *have* are words that can *assert* or *affirm* the relation; *to become* and *speaking* can only *assume* it. All such words are **verbs**.

332. *The Verb is the part of speech that is used to assert or assume relation; as:—*

Henry *plows*; Troy *was*; The house *stands*; They want Henry *to plow*; They wanted Troy *to be*; We want the house *to stand*; The boy *plowing* is Henry; The time *being* will soon be past; The house *standing* on the hill is ours.

(a) In the first three sentences the verbs *assert*, but in the last six they *assume*, *action*, *being*, and *state*.

(b) Here the word *assert* must be taken in a very wide sense, so as to include interrogation and command.

(c) The word *verb*, from the Latin *verbum*, meaning *word*, is applied to this part of speech perhaps because it is the most important. We can say of the *verb* what can be said of no other part of speech — *that without it a sentence cannot exist*.

(d) Other parts of speech — *prepositions, conjunctions, conjunctive adverbs*, and *relative pronouns* — can *express* relation; only the verb can *assert* or *assume* it.

(e) The verb is not always a single word, but is sometimes a *verb phrase*; as:—

The fact *might have been discovered* ;
 The property *has been taken possession of*.

(f) The predicate of every sentence must be a verb or contain one, for it is the only part of speech that can predicate.

CLASSIFICATION OF VERBS.

333. Verbs are classified upon five different bases.

334. (1) **According to their Relation to Subjects.** — By observing the sentences,

I study, He studies, They study,

we see that the *form* of the verbs is modified by the person and number of their subjects. They are therefore called **finite verbs**. The statement, *finite verbs have person and number*, means only that their form is often determined by the person and number of their subjects.

335. But in the following sentences,

She wants me to plow, She wants him to plow, She wants them to plow;

She saw me plowing, She saw him plowing, She saw them plowing;

it will be seen that the form of the italicized verbs remains the same, regardless of the person and number of their subjects. They are therefore called **in-finite verbs**. The statement, *in-finite verbs do not have person and number*, merely means that their form is never modified by the person and number of their subjects.

336. *A Finite Verb is one whose form may be modified by the person and number of its subject.*

337. *An In-finite Verb is one whose form is never modified by the person and number of its subject.*

(a) Owing to the slight inflection found in English, the modification of even our finite verbs for person and number is, except in the case of the verb *to be*, confined exclusively to the present tense. Thus :—

I <i>write</i> ,	He <i>writes</i> ,	They <i>write</i> ;
I <i>wrote</i> ,	He <i>wrote</i> ,	They <i>wrote</i> .
I <i>am</i> ,	He <i>is</i> ,	They <i>are</i> ;
I <i>was</i> ,	He <i>was</i> ,	They <i>were</i> .

(b) The two forms of the in-finite verb illustrated above are respectively the *infinitive* and the *participle*.

(c) Every transitive verb has four infinitives and four participles; as :—

to write, to have written, to be written, to have been written ;
writing, having written, being written, having been written.

Intransitive verbs have only two infinitives and two participles.

(d) Some grammarians of note class infinitives and participles with nouns and adjectives, but a very pronounced preponderance of scholarship regards them as *forms of the verb* ; and that in their use they resemble verbs more closely than they do any other part of speech is abundantly shown in the discussion, Articles 526 to 572.

(e) The thorough discussion of infinitives and participles should be deferred till after the pupil has completed his study of all the parts of speech.

338. (2) According to their Action's Relation to Objects.
 — In all such sentences as —

The boy <i>plows</i> the field,	The man <i>bought</i> an ox ;
The field <i>was plowed</i> by the boy,	The ox <i>was bought</i> by the man ;

it will be seen that the *action expressed by each verb is represented as going across from an agent to an object*. Such verbs are said to be **transitive**, because *transitive* means *to go across*.

339. But in such sentences as,

The dew *sparkles*, She walks *gracefully*,

while each verb expresses the action of an agent, *it does not represent it as going across to an object*. Such verbs

are said to be *intransitive*, because *intransitive* means *not to go across*.

340. A Transitive Verb is one that represents the action of an agent as terminating upon an object.

341. An Intransitive Verb is one that does not represent the action of an agent as terminating upon an object.

(a) **It is inexcusably loose** to define a *transitive verb* as one that *takes an object*, and an *intransitive verb* as one that *does not take an object*. Precisely fifty per cent of the transitive verbs never take objects; that is, every transitive verb in the active voice has its corresponding verb in the passive voice, and *no verb in the passive voice takes an object*, and *every verb in the passive voice is transitive*. We see then that many verbs that do not take objects are transitive. A transitive verb does not always take an object, but its *action* does.

(b) **Even an action that terminates upon an object** may be expressed by an intransitive verb; as, "He *leaned* against the post," "I *sat* on a box." Not only must a transitive verb *express* action that terminates on an object; it must, without the aid of a preposition, *represent the termination of the action on an object*; as:—

He <i>split</i> the post,	I <i>broke</i> the box.
The post <i>was split</i> ,	The box <i>was broken</i> .

(c) **Verbs commonly transitive are often intransitive.** (1) *When used so as to refer to no definite object*; as, "Henry *studies*, Mary *reads*." But here not all grammarians are agreed. Some say that if Henry *studies*, he must study *something*, and if Mary *reads* she must read *something*, and that the verbs are therefore transitive, although there is no object expressed. But the parsing of any part of speech must always be determined by the office it performs in the particular sentence in which it is found, and in the above sentences the verbs are used so as to refer to the agents only, without suggesting to our minds any thought of objects. They are therefore intransitive. But the object need not always be expressed for the verb to be transitive. Thus in "He is the man I *saw*," *saw* has no object expressed, but it is transitive, because its object, *that*, is clearly implied. In the sentence, "Dora *studies*, but Laura *does not*," both verbs are intransitive, having reference to agents only; but in the sentence, "Dora *studies algebra*, but Laura *does not*," the verbs are both transitive, because each represents the action of the agent as passing over to the definite object, *algebra*. (2) *When the active form is used in a passive signification*; as, "The instrument *tunes* easily;" this sentence is equivalent to "The instrument *is easily tuned*."

(d) **Verbs usually intransitive are often transitive.** (1) *When they have objects similar in signification to themselves*; as, "He dreamed a dream." "She sang a song." "That man lived a righteous life." It seems to be almost the universal custom among grammarians to speak of such as the above as being "intransitive verbs that govern objects," but such expressions very plainly involve a contradiction of terms, and should be rejected. By definition, any verb is transitive if it represents the action of the agent as terminating upon an object, no matter about the *signification of the object*. It will never be found necessary to depart from this definition, and any attempt to do so will be productive of nothing but confusion. (2) *When used in a causative sense*; as "Paul trots his pony." "The general marched his armies." (3) *When used in a poetic sense*; as, "Eyes looked love to eyes." "She can look daggers."

(e) **A transitive verb expresses action only**; an intransitive verb expresses *action, being, or state*.

(f) **Sometimes an intransitive verb in the passive form is made transitive by being compounded with a preposition**, as, "The house *was disposed of*." "We *were laughed at*." "The property *had been taken possession of*."

(g) **It may be allowable in a few cases to regard a preposition or an adverb as part of the verb in the active form**: "We should never *put off* duty." "The man *came to*." "He tried to *get up*." "He *set up* the stove." But this should never be done except when the compound is equivalent to a single word, and could not be separated into different parts of speech without marring the meaning.

(h) **In such sentences** as, "She laughed *herself* hoarse," "He slept *himself* weary," "They drank *themselves* drunk," no very satisfactory disposition can be given of the italicized words following the intransitive verb; but it seems preferable to parse any such words as the subject of the infinitive *to be* understood.

342. (3) According to their Completeness of Predication.—The two sentences,

He *steals*, and He *is* a thief,

may convey precisely the same meaning. But it will be observed that in the first, the predication is completed by the verb *steals*, which both *asserts* and *expresses* the attribute: while in the second, the verb *is* does not complete the predicate, but only *asserts* the attribute that is *expressed* by another word, *thief*. *Steals* is a verb of *com-*

plete predication, and because it contains the attribute it asserts, it is called an *attributive verb*; *is* is a verb of *incomplete predication*, and because it only couples to its subject an attribute that is expressed by another word, it is called a *copulative verb*.

343. *An Attributive Verb is one that expresses the attribute it asserts or assumes.*

344. *A Copulative Verb is one that asserts or assumes an attribute expressed by some other word or words.*

(a) **The literal meaning** of the word *copula* is to couple or fasten together.

(b) **There are few grammatical distinctions** more perplexing than that between attributive and copulative verbs. *It must be mastered.*

(c) **All active transitive verbs** are in one sense verbs of *incomplete predication*. They differ from copulative verbs in this: *what completes an active transitive verb is an objective complement, but what completes a copulative verb is an attributive complement.* Distinguish with care:—

George *was* a farmer, and George *saw* a farmer;
Bob *is* a good horse, and Bob *has* a good horse.

(d) **The complement** of a copulative verb is always a *substantive* or an *adjective*, or some expression so used. It may be a *noun*, *pronoun*, *adjective*, *infinitive*, *participle*, *phrase*, or *clause*. *Let the class illustrate.*

(e) **The predicate** always includes a copula and an attribute whether the two are expressed together or separately; as:—

Paul *preaches*, and Paul *is* a preacher.

Some logicians and grammarians do not regard the copula as a part of the predicate; but *the predicate is always a verb or contains one, since it is the only part of speech that can predicate.*

(f) **Many verbs in the passive voice** may be used as copulas; as, "She *was considered* honest." "I *was elected* chairman."

(g) **Although the verb *to be*** is the only pure copula, it is often purely attributive. It is *copulative* when it asserts or assumes an attribute, and *attributive* when it denotes merely *to exist*. In *Whatever is, is right*, the first *is* is *attributive*, and the second *copulative*. In the two following sentences all the verbs are attributive: (1) Troy *was*, but *is* no more. (2) What *was*, *is* no more, and what *is*, will not be.

(h) **How to distinguish a Copulative Verb.**—It is often difficult, and sometimes impossible, in isolated sentences, to distinguish the passive

voice from the copulative verb *to be* with a *predicate adjective or participle*. For example, in such sentences, as "*The pitcher was broken*," "*The house was covered*," "*The field was plowed*," "*That room was papered*," etc., we are unable to determine the meaning, and therefore cannot be positive concerning their disposition. Each may mean one or the other of two things, which would be made evident by the connection in which it is used. Thus, *The field was plowed* may refer to a particular *act*, in which case *was plowed* is a passive verb, or it may simply assert the *condition* of the field, in which case *was* is copulative, and *plowed* a predicate adjective.

Every declarative sentence may be regarded as the answer to a question, and before we can dispose of the above sentences we must know the questions they answer. Thus, they may be the respective answers to the questions: *What was done by the cat?* *What was done with the boards?* *What was done with the plow?* *What was done with the paper?* If so, *was broken*, *was covered*, *was plowed*, and *was papered* are passive verbs, referring to some *act* that took place in some time, in some manner, and by some actor. But if the sentences are intended to answer the questions: *Why did you not buy the pitcher?* *Why did he prefer to sleep in the house?* *Why did he not walk through the field?* *Why did she like that room best?* then, in each, *was* is a *copula*, asserting of the subject the condition expressed by the adjective that follows. If the verb is modified by a phrase denoting *manner*, we know that it is the *act* that is referred to, and not the *condition*. Thus, in "*The child's heart was broken by its mother's death*," *was broken* is evidently a *passive verb* expressing the *action*, but without the phrase its construction would be indeterminate. A phrase expressing *time* may modify a copula that is followed by a predicate adjective. In "*The child's heart has been broken since its mother's death*," *has been* is clearly a copula, and *broken* a *predicate adjective*.

(i) **Classes of Copulas.** — The only *pure copula* is some form of the verb *to be*, but many other verbs are used as *impure copulas*. In *She is happy*, *is* is purely copulative, having no other use than to assert the attribute *happy*. In the sentences, "*He seems honest*," "*They appear well*," etc., the verbs are almost purely copulative, but in the sentence, "*He came hurrying*," *hurrying* seems to be almost purely adverbial in its use. And between these two extremes we have all the different varieties of predication by copulas; as, "*They look tired*," "*He sits erect*," "*The apple tastes sweet*," "*He came attended*," "*She walks a queen*," etc. In each of these examples the complement is partly *attributive* and partly *adverbial* in construction. In the last sentence, for example, the meaning is partly that *she has a queenly walk*, and partly that *her walk shows her to be a queen*.

(j) **A complex or double copula** is a combination of a pure and an impure copula; as in such expressions as, "*She seems to be happy*," "*They appear to be good*," etc.

(k) **Uses of the Verb To Be.** — It may be well to note in passing that the verb *to be* has three distinct uses: one as an auxiliary; as, "The man *was* playing with the children;" and two as a principal verb, either *attributive* or *copulative*, which are explained above.

(l) **The construction of a phrase** may often be determined by determining the construction of the *single word* that may take its place. Thus, "*He is without a home*" is the same as "*He is homeless*." But many times phrases that are adverbial in construction are incorrectly regarded as predicate adjectives; as, "*He is in the house*." In this sentence *is* is *attributive*, and *in the house* is an adverbial element. Whenever such phrases following the verb *to be* express *attributes* that exist in the agents, they are used as predicate adjectives, but this cannot always be determined from the form of the sentences. Thus, "*He is in health*" means "*Health is in him*." *Is* is *copulative*, and *in health* is the attribute. But the sentence of exactly the same form, "*He is in Texas*," does not mean "*Texas is in him*." *Is* is *attributive*, and *in Texas* adverbial.

(m) An attributive verb may often be expanded into a copula and an attributive complement; "She *giggles*" = "She *is* a *giggler*;" "He *owns* the farm" = "He *is* the *owner* of the farm;" "Pay your debts" = "Be thou the *payer* of thy debts."

345. (4) According to their Form.—Certain forms or parts of the verb are called **Principal Parts**, because it is from these that all the other parts are obtained. The principal parts are called:—

346. Present Indicative: the simple form of the verb, or the form always found in the English dictionary; as, *see, plow, am*.

347. Past Indicative: the form of the word used to represent past time indefinitely; as, *saw, plowed, was*.

348. Perfect Participle: the form of the verb that expresses time more definitely than the Past Indicative, by relating it to some other time, either past, present, or future, implied by the sentence; as *seen, plowed, been*.

349. The above examples show that some verbs form their past indicative and perfect participle by changing the ending of the present indicative to *ed*; as, *plow, plowed, plowed; move, moved, moved; plant, planted, planted*; these are called *regular verbs*.

350. The verbs that do not form their past indicative and perfect participle in this way are called *irregular verbs*.

351. A **Regular Verb** is one that forms its *Past Indicative* and *Perfect Participle* by changing the ending of the *Present Indicative* to *ed*.

352. An **Irregular Verb** is one that does not form its *Past Indicative* and *Perfect Participle* by changing the ending of the *Present Indicative* to *ed*.

353. Irregular verbs are of three kinds : —

354. Complete : those having a full set of principal parts ; as, *write, wrote, written*.

355. Defective : those lacking some of the principal parts ; as, *beware, ought, quoth*.

356. Redundant : those having more than a sufficiency of principal parts ; as, *eat, strike, cleave*.

(a) Some grammarians name, also, the *present active infinitive* and the *present active participle* as principal parts ; as, *to see, to plow, to be ; seeing, plowing, being*.

(b) Often, as in case of the verb *love*, the final *e* of the present indicative must be dropped before *ed* is added to form the past indicative and perfect participle.

(c) The *perfect participle* is often called the *past participle* ; and the *past indicative*, the *imperfect*.

(d) **Strong and Weak Verbs.** — A *strong verb* is one that forms its past indicative and perfect participle by varying the root vowel ; as, *steal, stole, stolen ; sing, sang, sung*. Commonly, but not always, the perfect participle of a strong verb ends in *en*. A *weak verb* is one that forms its past indicative and perfect participle by adding *ed, d, or t* to the present indicative ; as *abash, abashed ; hear, heard ; feel, felt*.

(e) It will be observed that the classification of verbs into strong and weak corresponds closely but not completely with that into irregular and regular. All strong verbs are irregular, but not all irregular verbs are strong. Also, all regular verbs are weak, but not all weak verbs are regular. Originally all our verbs were irregular in their conjugation ; but there has been a tendency for them to form their past indicative and perfect participle by adding to the present indicative, *ed, d, or t*. Those that have yielded to the tendency, including all regular verbs, are called *weak verbs* ; those that have withstood the tendency, including most of our irregular verbs, are called *strong verbs*.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

357. The following list shows the principal parts of most irregular verbs, and also what verbs are defective and what redundant.

358. Every student of English grammar, indeed every one that speaks the English language, should thoroughly master our irregular verbs, for it is in the use of these that arise a multitude of the grossest errors.

359. List of Irregular Verbs.

In using irregular verbs, we are liable to error for the most part only in the use of those whose past indicative and perfect participle are not alike. These verbs have therefore been given first, and separate from the rest, that they may be learned perfectly. *r* denotes that the regular form may also be used instead of the other. *** denotes that the form under it is seldom used, being ancient, poetic, or of late introduction. The form supposed to be of the best present usage is placed first. The second form of some verbs is preferable, when applied in a certain way; as, "*freighted* with spices and silks," "*fraught* with mischief;" "*thunder-struck*," "*sorrow-stricken*." — Memorize only the unmarked forms.

1. THE TWO PAST FORMS DIFFERENT.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Perfect Part.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Perfect Part.</i>
Am,	was,	been.	Begin,	{ began, begun,* }	begun.
Arise,	arose,	arisen.	Bid,	bid, bade,	{ bid, bidden.
Awake,	awoke, <i>r.</i>	{ awaked, awoke.* }	Bite,	bit,	{ bitten, bit.
Bear (<i>bring forth</i>),	bore, bare,	born.	Blow,	blew, <i>r.</i> ,*	blown, <i>r.</i> *
Bear (<i>carry</i>),	bore,	borne.	Break,	{ broke, brake,* }	{ broken, broke.* }
Beat,	beat,	{ beaten, beat.	Chide,	chid,	{ chidden, chid.
Become,	became,	become.	Choose,	chose,	chosen.
Befall,	befell,	befallen.	Cleave,	{ cleaved, (<i>adhere</i>), { <i>clave</i> , ¹ }	cleaved.
Beget,	{ begot, begat,* }	{ begotten, begot.			

¹ "My tongue *clave* to the roof of my mouth." — *Dickens*.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Perfect Part.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Perfect Part.</i>
Cleave	{ cleft, clove,	cleft,	Know,	knew,	known.
(split),	{ clave,	cloven.	Lade	laded,	laden, r.
Come,	came,	come.	(load),		
Crow,	{ crowed,	crowed.	Lean,	{ leaned,	leaned,
	{ crew,			{ léant,	léant.
Dare	{ dared, ¹	dared.	Leap,	{ leaped,	leaped,
(ven-	{ durst,			{ léapt,*	léapt.*
ture),			Lie	lay,	lain.
(Dare —	dared,	dared.)	(repose),		
challenge,			Mow,	mowed,	mown, r.
Dive,	{ dived,	dived.	Prove,	proved,	{ proved,
	{ dove,				{ proven.*
Do,	did,	done.	Rend,	rent,	{ rent,
Draw,	drew,	drawn.			{ rended. ² *
Drink,	drank,	{ drunk,	Ride,	rode,	{ rode,
		{ drank.*			{ ridden.
Drive,	drove,	driven.	Ring,	rang, rung,	rung.
Eat,	ate,	eaten.*	Rise,	rose,	risen.
Fall,	fell,	fallen.	Rive,	rived,	ripen, r.*
Fly,	flew,	flown.	Run,	ran, run,*	run.
Forbear,	forbore,	forborne.	Saw,	sawed,	sawn, r.
Forget,	forgot,	{ forgotten,	See,	saw,	seen.
		{ forgot.	Seethe,	{ seethed,	seethed,
Forsake,	forsook,	forsaken.		{ sod,	sodden.
Freeze,	froze,	frozen.	Shake,	shook,	shaken.
Freight,	freighted,	{ freighted,	Shape,	shaped,	{ shaped,
		{ fraught.			{ shapen.*
Get,	got,	{ got,	Shave,	shaved,	{ shaved,
		{ gotten.*			{ shaven.
Give,	gave,	given.	Shear,	{ sheared,	{ shorn, r.
Go,	went,	gone.		{ shore,*	
Grave,	graved,	graven, r.	Show,	showed,	shown, r.
Grow,	grew,	grown.	Shrink,	{ shrank,	shrunk,
Heave,	{ heaved,	heaved,		{ shrunk,	shrunk.*
	{ hove,	hoven.*			
Hew,	hewed,	hewn, r.	Sing,	{ sang,	{ sung.
				{ sung,	
Hide,	hid,	{ hidden,	Sink,	{ sank,	{ sunk.
		{ hid.		{ sunk,	
Hold,	held,	{ held,	Slay,	slew,	slain.
		{ holden. ²	Slide,	slid, r.,	{ slidden,
					{ slid, r.

¹ "This line he *dared* not cross." — *Macaulay*. ² Beholden ; withholden.*

* "Come as the winds came when forests are *rended*." — *W. Scott*.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Perfect Part.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Perfect Part.</i>
Smite,	smote,	{ smitten, smit.	Swear,	{ swore, sware,	sworn.
Sow	sowed,	sown, r.	Swell,	swelled,	swollen, r.
(scatter),			Swim,	{ swam, swum,	swum.
Speak,	{ spoke, spake,* }	spoken.	Take,	took,	taken.
Spit,	{ spit, spat,* }	spit, spitten.*	Tare,	tore,	torn.
Spring,	{ sprang, sprung,	sprung.	Thrive,	{ throve, thrived,	thriven, thrived.
Steal,	stole,	stolen.	Throw,	threw, r.,*	thrown, r.*
Stride,	{ strode, strid,	stridden, strid.	Tread,	{ trod, trode,	trodden, trod.*
Strike,	struck,	{ struck, stricken.	Wax,	waxed,	{ waxed, waxen.
Strive,	strove, r.,*	striven, r.*	Wear,	wore,	worn.
Strow,	strowed,	strown, r.	Weave,	wove, r.,*	woven, r.*
			Write,	{ wrote, writ,* }	written.

2. THE TWO PAST OR THE THREE FORMS ALIKE.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Perfect Part.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Perfect Part.</i>
Abide,	abode, r.,*	abode. r.*	Burst,	burst,	burst, r.*
Behold,	beheld,	beheld.	Buy,	bought,	bought.
Belay,	belaid, r.,	belaid, r.	Cast,	cast,	cast.
Bend,	bent, r.,	bent, r.	Catch,	caught, r.,*	caught, r.*
Bereave,	bereft, r.,	bereft, r.	Cling,	clung,	clung.
Beseech,	besought,	besought.	Clothe,	{ clothed, clad,	clothed, clad.
Bestead,*	bestead,*	bestead.*	Cost,	cost,	cost.
Bet,	bet, r.,	bet, r.	Creep,	crept,	crept.
Betide,	{ betided, betid,* }	betided, betid.*	Cut,	cut,	cut.
Bind,	bound,	bound.	Deal,	dealt, r.,*	dealt, r.*
Bleed,	bled,	bled.	Dig,	dug, r.,	dug, r.
Blend,	{ blended, blent,* }	blended, blent.*	Dream,	{ dreamed, drëamt,	dreamed, drëamt.
Bless,	{ blessed, blest,	blessed, blest.	Dress,	{ dressed, drest,* }	dressed, drest.*
Breed,	bred,	bred.	Dwell,	dwelt, r.,	dwelt, r.
Bring,	brought,	brought.	Feed,	fed,	fed.
Build,	built, r.,	built, r.	Feel,	felt,	felt.
Burn,	{ burned, burnt,	burned, burnt.	Fight,	fought,	fought.
			Find,	found,	found.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Perfect Part.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Perfect Part.</i>
Flee,	fled,	fled.	Put,	put,	put.
Fling,	flung,	flung.	Quit,	quit, <i>r.</i> ,	quit, <i>r.</i>
Gild,	{ gilded, gilt,	{ gilded, gilt.	Rap,	{ rapped, rapt,	{ rapped, rapt. ³
Gird,	girt, <i>r.</i> ,	girt, <i>r.</i>	Read,	read,	read.
Grind,	ground,	ground.	Reave,	reft, <i>r.</i> ,*	reft, <i>r.</i> *
Hang,	hung, <i>r.</i> ,	hung, <i>r.</i> ¹	Rid,	rid,	rid.
Have (prin- cipal verb),	had,	had.	Say,	said,	said.
Hear,	heard,	heard,	Seek,	sought,	sought.
Hit,	hit,	hit.	Sell,	sold,	sold.
Hurt,	hurt,	hurt.	Send,	sent,	sent.
Keep,	kept,	kept.	Set,	set,	set.
Kneel,	{ knelt, kneeled,	{ knelt, kneeled.	Shed,	shed,	shed.
Knit,	knit, <i>r.</i> ,	knit, <i>r.</i>	Shine,	shone, <i>r.</i> ,*	shone, <i>r.</i> *
Lay,	laid,	laid.	Shoe,	shod,	shod.
Lead,	led,	led.	Shoot,	shot,	shot.
Learn,	{ learned, learnt,	{ learned, learnt.	Shred,	shred,	shred.
Leave,	left,	left.	Shut,	shut,	shut.
Lend,	lent,	lent.	Sit,	sat,	sat.
Let,	let,	let.	Sleep,	slept,	slept.
Light,	{ lighted, lit,	{ lighted, lit.	Sling,	slung,	slung.
Lose,	lost,	lost.	Slink,	slunk,	slunk.
Make,	made,	made.	Slit,	slit, <i>r.</i> ,	slit, <i>r.</i>
Mean,	meant,	meant.	Smell,	smelt, <i>r.</i> ,	smelt, <i>r.</i>
Meet,	met,	met.	Speed,	sped, <i>r.</i> ,*	sped, <i>r.</i> *
Pass,	{ passed, past,*	{ passed, past. ²	Spell,	{ spelled, spelt,	{ spelled, spelt.
Pay,	paid,	paid.	Spend,	spent,	spent.
Pen (<i>fence</i> <i>in</i>),	penned, pent,	penned, pent.	Spill,	spilt, <i>r.</i> ,	spilt, <i>r.</i>
(Pen — <i>write</i>),	penned,	penned.)	Spin,	spun,	spun.
Plead,	{ plead, pled,	{ plead, pled.	Split,	split, <i>r.</i> ,*	split, <i>r.</i>
			Spoil,	{ spoiled, spoilt,*	{ spoiled, spoilt.*
			Spread,	spread,	spread.
			Stand,	stood,	stood.
			Stave,	stove, <i>r.</i> ,	stove, <i>r.</i>
			Stay,	staid, <i>r.</i> ,	staid, <i>r.</i> ⁴
			Stick,	stuck,	stuck.

¹ Hang, hanged, hanged: *to suspend by the neck with intent to kill*; but the distinction is not always observed. ² Past is used as an adjective or as a noun. ³ Rap, rapt, rapt: *to seize with rapture*. ⁴ Stay, stayed, stayed: *to cause to stop*.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Perfect Part.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Perfect Part.</i>
Sting,	stung,	stung.	Wring,	wrung, r.,*	wrung, r.*
Stink,	{ stunk, stank,* }	stunk.	Beware,	_____	_____
String,	strung, r.,*	strung, r.*	Can,	could,	_____
Sweat,	{ swēat, r., swet, }	swēat. swet.	Do (aux'y) did,	_____	_____
Sweep,	swept,	swept.	Have	{ had,	_____
Swing,	swung,	swung.	(aux'y),	{ had,	_____
Teach,	taught,	taught.	May,	might,	_____
Tell,	told,	told.	Must,	must,	_____
Think,	thought,	thought.	Ought,	ought,	_____
Thrust,	thrust,	thrust.	_____	quoth,	_____
Wake,	woke, r.,	woke, r.	Shall,	should,	_____
Wed,	{ wedded, wed,* }	wedded, wed.*	Will	{ would,	_____
Weep,	wept,	wept.	(aux'y),	{ would,	_____
Wet,	wet, r.,	wet, r.	(Will —	{ willed,	willed.)
Win,	won,	won.	wish, be- queath,)	{ willed,	willed.)
Wind,	wound, r.,	wound, r.	Wit,	{ wot,* }	_____
Work,	{ worked, wrought,	worked, wrought.	Wot,*	{ wot,* }	_____
			Wis,*	{ wist,* }	_____
			Weet,*	{ wote,* }	_____

360. (5) According to their Rank. — From the sentences, “I plow,” “I can plow,” “I will plow,” “I must plow,” we see that the action is expressed by the verb *plow*, and that the verbs *can*, *will*, *must*, are used to modify, in some way, the manner of the expression. Because they are used thus to aid other verbs, they are called *auxiliary verbs*; while verbs that may be used either with or without auxiliaries are called *principal verbs*.

361. Auxiliary verbs are those used in the conjugation of other verbs.

362. Principal verbs are those that may be used either with or without auxiliaries.

(a) The auxiliaries are *be* and *have* in all their forms; *do*, *did*; *may*, *might*; *can*, *could*; *must*; *will*, *would*; *shall*, *should*.

(b) *Be* and *have* in all their forms, *do*, *did*, *would*, and *will* are often used as principal verbs; as, “I *do* the work,” “He *did* it,” “I *would* that all men were honest,” “He *willed* me his property.”

- (c) An auxiliary verb may express :—
- (1) *Progression* ; as, "The men *are building* the barn."
 - (2) *Passivity* ; as, "The bowl *was broken*."
 - (3) *Time* ; as, "They *were talking*" (past). "They *are talking*" (present). "They *will talk*" (future).
 - (4) *Emphasis* ; as, "You *did tell* me." "You *do have* the money."
 - (5) *Power or ability* ; as, "I *can assist* you." "I *could not see* him."
 - (6) *Completion* ; as, "I *have finished* the work." "I *had not heard* him."
 - (7) *Permission* ; as, "You *may come* in."
 - (8) *Probability or possibility* ; as, "It *may rain* before night." "You *may die to-day*."
 - (9) *Reasonableness* ; as, "The question *might be asked*, how he happened to be there." That is, it would be reasonable to ask.
 - (10) *Compulsion* ; as, "You *shall pay* me." "He *shall obey*."
 - (11) *Necessity* ; as, "We *must suffer* the consequences."
 - (12) *Duty* ; as, "We *should be* respectful to the aged."
 - (13) *Willingness* ; as, "I *would pay* you if I could."
 - (14) *Adaptation* ; as, "This *will do*."
 - (15) *Tendency* ; as, "The bloom of youth *will fade* away."
 - (16) *Interrogation* ; as, "Do you *believe* her?" "Shall I *assist* you?" This idea is expressed by the position of the auxiliary.
 - (17) *Determination, Promise, or Command* ; as, "I *will have* it." "You *shall have* your money." "Thou *shalt not steal*."

USES OF THE AUXILIARIES.

363. (1) *Do* in the present and *did* in the past are used principally for emphasis ; as, "You *do have* the money." "I *did give* it to you."

364. (2) *Can* in the present and *could* in the past express the power or ability of the agent to perform the act ; as, "I *can do* the work." "She *could fill* my position."

365. (3) *May* in the present and *might* in the past express liberty or permission ; as, "You *may stay*." "It *might be done*."

(a) *Might* sometimes expresses possibility ; as, "It *might have been*." *May* often expresses probability ; as, "She *may be sick*."

(b) *May* is placed before the subject to ask a question or express a wish ; as, "*May I go*?" "*May you always be happy*."

(c) *Can* is often incorrectly used for *may*; as, "*Can* I use your book?" "*Can* the children play with me?"

366. (4) **Must** expresses necessity — physical, intellectual, or moral; as, "That star *must* be above the horizon to-night." "If you admit his premises, you *must* accept his conclusion." "We *must* tell the truth."

367. (5) **Shall, should; will, would.** — There are, perhaps, no four words in the language more frequently misused than *shall*, *should*, *will*, and *would*. Even our very best writers are sometimes guilty of using *will* for *shall*, or *would* for *should*; but carelessness is the only excuse that can be offered for such a blunder, and whoever persists in misusing these words must acknowledge either that he is too ignorant to master the distinction that ought to be made, or too careless to observe it.

368. Rules. — (1) **Shall**, in the first person, simply *foretells*; in the second and third, it expresses a *promise*, *command*, or *determination* of the speaker. "I *shall* know presently." "You *shall* have the reward." "Thou *shalt* not steal." "The nation *shall* be free."

369. (2) **Will**, in the first person, not only *foretells*, but expresses a *promise* or *determination* of the speaker; in the second and third, it only *foretells*. "I *will* pay you." "I *will* have my pay." "You will be pleased with the book." "He *will* come to-morrow."

370. (3) When the sense demands such a change in the mode or tense, use *should* for *shall*, and *would* for *will*. "We *would* assist you if we could." "You *should* try again."

(a) **In interrogative sentences**, *shall* denotes that the act is under the volition or control of something external to the agent, and *will* implies that the act is under the control of the agent.

Shall I go? *Shall* you go? *Shall* he go?
Will you go? *Will* he go?

Will can never be used literally in the first person, for no one can be supposed to know the speaker's will better than he knows it. But by a very common and very forcible rhetorical figure, *will* in the first person may be used with fine effect. The figure is *Interrogation*, according to which a sentence having the form of a question is in reality a very positive declaration. If the question contains a negative particle it is generally intended to imply an affirmative answer; but without such a particle it suggests a negative answer. Thus, "*Will I not demand my money?*" means, "*I certainly will demand my money*"; and "*Will I tolerate his slander?*" means, "*I certainly will not tolerate his slander.*"

(b) **Will** is often used in the third person simply to express a general truth more emphatically than it could be expressed by the present tense of the verb; as, "Accidents *will* happen." "Flowers *will* die."

(c) When the verb is in the subjunctive mode, *shall* denotes nothing but *futurity*; as, "If he *shall* leave before Monday;" but "He *shall* leave before Monday" expresses the determination of the speaker.

(d) Many sentences in which *will* or *would* is correctly used, require *shall* or *should* when we introduce an adjective or an adverb to express the additional idea expressed by *will* or *would*. Thus, the sentence, "I will grant your request," expresses the idea of *futurity*, and also the additional idea of the *speaker's pleasure*; but when we introduce an adjective or an adverb to express the *speaker's pleasure*, *will* should be changed to *shall*; as, "I *shall* be happy to grant your request," or "I *shall* gladly grant your request." "I *will* be happy to grant your request," implies that it would require an effort for the speaker to be happy.

371. General Rules.—All that has been said concerning these four auxiliaries may be summed up in the two *general rules*:—

372. (1) *Shall* or *should* represents the act or state as independent of the volition or control of what is represented by the subject of the verb.

373. (2) *Will* or *would* represents the act or state as independent of the volition or control of the speaker, unless he is also represented by the subject of the verb.

(a) The student should accustom himself to observing thoughtfully both his own language and that of others, for the purpose of determining whether the act to be expressed is to be represented as under the control of the speaker, of that which is represented by the subject of the verb, or of something different from either.

(b) The following quotation is from Richard Grant White: "The radical signification of *will* (Anglo-Saxon *willan*) is purpose, intention, determination; that of *shall* (Anglo-Saxon *sceal*, ought) is obligation. *I will do* means, I purpose doing—I am determined to do. *I shall do* means radically, *I ought to do*; and as a man is supposed to do what he sees he ought to do, *I shall do* came to mean, I am about doing—to be, in fact, a mere announcement of future action, more or less remote. But so *you shall do* means, radically, *you ought to do*; and therefore, unless we mean to impose an obligation, or to announce an action on the part of another person, over whom we claim some control, *shall*, in speaking of the mere future voluntary action of another person, is inappropriate; and we therefore say *you will*, assuming that it is the volition of the other person to do thus or so. Hence, in merely announcing future action, we say, I or we *shall*, you, he, or they *will*; and, in declaring purpose on our own part, or on the part of another, obligation, or unavoidable action, which we mean to control, we say, I or we *will*, you, he, or they *shall*."

374. Examples.

- (1) He shall do it. (Speaker's determination, or promise.)
- (2) You shall do it. (Speaker's determination, or promise.)
- (3) I shall do it. (Mere futurity.)
- (4) He will do it. (Mere futurity.)
- (5) You will do it. (Futurity, or entreaty.)
- (6) I will do it. (Determination.)

375. Explain the force of the auxiliaries in the following:—

- (1) Will you give thanks, sweet Kate, or else shall I?
- (2) Will it be dark before you reach the tower?
- (3) What shall I do?

- (4)

Then wilt thou not be loath
 To leave this paradise, but shalt possess
 A Paradise within thee. — *Milton*.

- (5)

This child I to myself will take;
 She shall be mine, and I will make
 A lady of my own.

The stars of midnight shall be dear
 To her; and she shall lean her ear
 In many a secret place,

Where rivulets dance their wayward round,
 And beauty born of murmuring sound
 Shall pass into her face. — *Wordsworth*.

(6) Shall I, wasting in despair,
Die because woman's fair ?
If she love me, then believe
I will die ere she shall grieve. — *Wither*.

(7) If she hate me, then believe
She shall die ere I will grieve.

— *Ben Jonson's Parody on the Above*.

376. Try each of the auxiliaries, *do, be, have, may, can, must, might, could, would, should, shall, will*, in each of the following blanks, and observe the difference thus made in the meaning of the sentence : —

- (1) You — leave the room.
- (2) I believe that she — pay me.
- (3) He — study grammar.
- (4) Do you say that I — accept it.
- (5) They — let us alone.

377. *Fill the following blanks with shall or will, and give reasons for your selection :* —

- (1) I — be the loser in that trade.
- (2) I — be drowned ; nobody — help me.
- (3) I — be punished if I do wrong.
- (4) If you mistreat a friend you — regret it.
- (5) If you mistreat me you — regret it.
- (6) It — probably rain to-day.
- (7) — I assist you ?
- (8) If you — favor me, I — be obliged.
- (9) He — not do it ; we — not allow it.
- (10) — you have this coffee, or — I drink it ?
- (11) If he — be in time, he — accept the position.
- (12) — he accompany you ?

378. *Fill the following blanks with should or would, and give reasons for your selection.*

- (1) I — not be able to repeat it correctly.
- (2) I — pay him to-day if he — demand it.
- (3) I — not think she — do such a thing.
- (4) We — be pleased, if you — favor us.
- (5) He — pay his debts, if he — get his pension.

- (6) We — do unto others as we — have others do unto us.
 (7) He was afraid that he — be hurt.
 (8) He was afraid that his father — commit suicide.

PROPERTIES OF VERBS.

379. (A) (1) Frost *bites* the flowers.
 (2) The flowers *are bitten* by frost.

In (1) the verb *bites* is used, so that its subject, *frost*, stands for the *doer of the act* or *agent*. But in (2), the verb *are bitten* makes its subject, *flowers*, represent the *receiver* or *object of the act*. This distinction or property of verbs is called **voice**.

380. (B) We have seen that every sentence expresses a thought and that every thought refers to a reality. We have now to note the *manner* in which the sentence relates the thought to the reality. This property of the verb, by which it enables its sentence to express the relation of thought to reality, is **mode**.

381. (1) A sentence may *declare the fact* of agreement between thought and reality; as,

The mail arrives on the morning train. — **Indicative mode.**

382. (2) A sentence may express the idea of *power* as determining the relation between thought and reality; as,

The mail may (can, must, might, could, would, or should) arrive on the morning train. — **Potential mode.**

383. (3) A sentence may express the idea of *will* as determining the relation between thought and reality; as,

Bring the mail on the morning train. — **Imperative mode.**

384. (4) A sentence may express, (a) *doubt as to the agreement*, or (b) *certainty as to the disagreement*, between thought and reality; as,

If the mail arrives on the morning train, we shall go. If the mail

had arrived on the morning train, we should have gone. — **Subjunctive mode.**

385. (C) Verbs are inflected to mark differences in time; as,

I go, I have gone; I went, I had gone; I shall go, I shall have gone.

This property is called **tense**.

386. (D) Verbs vary their form, too, according to the person and number of their subjects; as,

I go, he goes, they go.

These properties are called **person** and **number**.

VOICE.

387. Voice is the property of the verb that shows whether the subject represents the doer or the receiver of the act. There are, therefore, two voices, *active* and *passive*.

388. Active Voice is the voice in which the verb makes its subject represent the doer of the act; as, "*Homer wrote the Iliad.*" "*She blames me.*" "*I will cover her grave with flowers.*" "*The boy runs.*"

389. Passive Voice is the voice in which the verb makes its subject represent the receiver of the act; as, "*The Iliad was written by Homer.*" "*I am blamed by her.*" "*Her grave shall be covered with flowers by me.*"

(a) **Only verbs that express action** can properly be said to have voice.

(b) **It is claimed by many that only transitive verbs have voice**; but this position is untenable. A verb is in the active voice if its subject represents the actor, whether the act terminates upon an object or not. If it does, the verb is transitive; if it does not, the verb is intransitive; but in either case it is in the active voice. It is illogical to make voice a distinction concerning the termination of the act upon an object, for that is provided for in the classification of verbs into transitive and intransitive.

(c) **The active voice is changed** to the passive by making the object in the active become the subject in the passive. Thus, "*Anna studies algebra*" = "*Algebra is studied by Anna.*" "*Napoleon won many battles*" = "*Many battles were won by Napoleon.*"

(d) When the verb is in the active voice, the word that represents the doer of the act is its subject, and is in the nominative case, and the word that represents the receiver of the act is its object, and is in the objective case ; as, "*John struck the boy.*" But when the verb is in the passive voice, the word that represents the receiver of the act is its subject, and is in the nominative case, and the word that represents the doer of the act is in the objective case, usually governed by the preposition *by* ; as, "*The boy was struck by John.*"

(e) Transitive verbs have the two voices, while intransitive verbs have only the active. An intransitive verb can never be changed to the passive voice, because it has no object in the active to be made the subject in the passive.

(f) The elements of the passive voice are :—

- (1) some form of the verb *to be*,
- (2) before the *perfect participle*,
- (3) of a *transitive verb*.

(g) It is very convenient to use the passive voice, either when we do not know the actor, or when we wish to conceal the actor, as, "*The crime was committed.*"

(h) The passive form of intransitive verbs is sometimes used by enallage for the active ; as, "*The melancholy days are come,*" for "*The melancholy days have come.*"

(i) The active voice is sometimes used by enallage for the passive ; as, "*The state-house is building.*" "*The work is doing.*"

This form of expression is now warranted by our very best writers and ablest critics, and no amount of protest on the part of grammarians seems sufficient to drive it out of the language.

EXERCISES.

390. (1) *Tell the voice of each verb.*

(2) *Change the voice and preserve the meaning of the sentence.*

- (1) Sarah was astonished at the news.
- (2) William bought a book.
- (3) That poem was written by Saxe.
- (4) He will find his money.
- (5) How do you spend your time ?
- (6) I crossed the river before I saw you.
- (7) We desire to be loved by every one.
- (8) The man was killed by a lion.
- (9) She looks as if she wanted to speak.
- (10) He seems sad.

MODE.

391. *Mode is the property of the verb that denotes the manner in which thought is related to reality.*

(a) **Languages differ** as to the number of their modes. It is said that the Arabic has thirteen, the Russian seven, the Sanscrit six, and the Anglo-Saxon but four. Grammarians differ as to the number of modes that belong to a particular language; but the number of modes, like the number of classes of words, is merely a matter of convenience. Mode is the manner of expression. There might, therefore, be as many modes as there are forms of expression; but as this number would be almost infinite, such a classification would be worthless.

(b) **Mode is a grammatical term.** It does not mean the manner of an action, or the manner of a thought; *it is the manner in which the verb expresses the relation between thought and reality.*

FINITE MODES.

392. All the different manners in which a finite verb may express the relation between thought and reality may be included under the four modes explained above,—*Indicative, Potential, Imperative, and Subjunctive.*

393. *The Indicative is the mode in which the verb expresses agreement of thought with reality, as :—*

He came. He did not come. Did he come ?

(a) The indicative mode may be used in assertions, in denials, or in questions.

394. *The Potential is the mode that expresses the idea of power as determining the relation between thought and reality, as :—*

I can do it. He could do it.

395. A verb in the *potential mode* most commonly expresses :—

- (1) *Power*; as, "I can go." "I could go."
- (2) *Possibility*; as, "It may rain." "It might be done."
- (3) *Liberty or permission*; as, "You may have it."
- (4) *Inclination*; as, "I would like to see him."
- (5) *Duty*; as, "You should pay him."
- (6) *Necessity*; as, "You must leave."
- (7) *Wish*; as, "May you succeed."

(a) Occasionally a verb in this mode expresses **tendency, adaptation, consequence, contingency.**

(b) The potential, like the indicative, may be used interrogatively; as, "*Could it be done?*"

(c) The potential mode, unlike the subjunctive, may always be known by the form of the verb, or rather by an *auxiliary* that is placed before the verb.

(d) The auxiliaries that are the signs of the potential mode are *may, can, must, might, could, would, and should.*

"*Shall*, in the sense of *must*, and *will* when it expresses volition, belong rather to the potential mode than to the indicative; but to avoid troublesome distinctions, they are always considered as belonging to the indicative mode." — *Kerl.*

(e) Since all the tenses of the potential mode may be used in conditional sentences, it frequently happens that a verb will have the sign of the subjunctive, and also the auxiliary denoting the potential; as, "*If he would study, he might improve.*" Here *would study* is in the subjunctive mode, past tense. *The first sign governs the mode; the second, the tense.*

396. *The Imperative is the mode that expresses the idea of will as determining the relation between thought and reality, as : —*

Leave us. Do stay with us.

(a) When the speaker addresses an inferior, the verb expresses a *command*; as, "*Avaunt and quit my sight!*" When the speaker addresses an equal, the verb expresses *entreaty* or exhortation; as, "*Do not leave me.*" When the speaker addresses a superior, the verb expresses *supplication* or *prayer*; as, "*Give us this day our daily bread.*"

(b) The subject of an imperative verb is usually a second person pronoun understood; but it may be a noun or pronoun of the third person, or a pronoun of the first; as, "*Ruin seize thee.*" "*Somebody call my wife.*" "*Hallowed be thy name.*" "*So be it.*" "*Proceed we then to our theme.*" "*Pass we then.*"

(c) The imperative is used chiefly in principal sentences; it is used in subordinate sentences only in direct quotations; as, "God said, *Let there be light.*"

397. *The Subjunctive is the mode that expresses (a) doubt as to the agreement, or (b) certainty as to the disagreement, between thought and reality; as : —*

If he *is* honest, he will please me.

If he *had been* honest, he would have pleased me.

(a) The subjunctive mode is used only in subjoined (subordinate) sentences.

(b) The *subjunctive mode* has long been, and will no doubt continue to be, the source of much perplexity to the pupil, the teacher, and the author. Earlier English had, as many other languages still have, a distinct form of the verb for this mode. But this distinction has almost entirely passed away. Many of the very best writers and speakers no longer distinguish the subjunctive from the indicative by the form of the verb.

But, although the distinction in form is obsolescent, it seems far from right to say that the *subjunctive mode* will ever be obsolete. *Mode* never meant *form* in any language. *Mode* means *manner of expression*. The manner of expression may be indicated by the form of the words, by their relative position, or by the introduction of other words, but it always exists and must be recognized by the grammarian. There is no grammatical distinction more important than this, and to give up the subjunctive mode is to give up mode altogether, and that is to acknowledge that our language has no grammar. The loss of a distinct form for the subjunctive mode is but another manifestation of what seems to be almost a determination on the part of our language to get rid of all its inflection. But after all its inflection is gone, if it must go, the English will have a grammar surpassed by none; for then the student must go back of the words and determine the exact nature of the thought to be expressed; then English grammar will be elevated to the dignity of logic.

(c) The subjunctive mode may usually, but not always, be known by being preceded by *if*, *though*, *lest*, *unless*, *except*, *whether*, *that*, *till*.

(d) Some of these words, *if* and *though* most frequently, are often followed by the indicative instead of the subjunctive. This is the case when the subordinate sentence expresses an *admission* instead of a *condition* or *doubt*. In such cases we cannot be guided by the form of the verb, but must determine the mode from the thought to be expressed. Sometimes in isolated sentences the exact thought cannot be known, then the verb cannot be parsed. In the sentence, "If he *is* honest, he will pay you," *is* is *subjunctive*, because the subordinate sentence expresses a *condition*; but in the sentence, "If he *is* honest, he is liable to be mistaken," *is* in the subordinate sentence is *indicative*, because it expresses an *admission*.

(e) *Were* and *wert* still distinguish the subjunctive from the indicative *was* and *wast*. This is the only distinction that is always observed.

(f) The verb is sometimes in the subjunctive mode without the usual sign; as, "*Were* I in her place, I would get my lessons." "*Had* he requested it, I should have paid him."

IN-FINITE MODES.

398. *The Infinitive and the Participial are those modes in which the verb assumes the action, being, or state, instead of affirming it, and retains the same form regardless of the person and number of the subject. (See Article 526.)*

TENSE.

399. *Tense is that property of the verb by which it denotes the time of a relation.*

(a) While mode has reference to the *manner of expression* and not to that of *being or of thought*; *tense* denotes the time of a real relation, that is, of action, being, or state, not the time of the thought or of the expression.

400. Corresponding to the three arbitrary divisions of time, there are the three PRIMARY TENSES : —

Present, I write; Past, I wrote; Future, I shall write.

401. Each of these primary tenses has a *perfect tense*, thus making three SECONDARY TENSES : —

Present Perfect, I have written; Past Perfect, I had written; Future Perfect, I shall have written.

402. *The Present is the tense that denotes present time; as, I plow.*

403. *The Present Perfect is the tense that may denote any period of past time that extends up to, and ends with, the present; as, I have plowed.*

404. *The Past is the tense that denotes indefinitely any past time; as, I plowed.*

405. *The Past Perfect is the tense that denotes the time of any past event more definitely by representing it as completed before the occurrence of some other past event; as, I had plowed the field when he planted it.*

406. *The Future is the tense that denotes indefinitely any future time; as, I shall plow.*

407. *The Future Perfect is the tense that denotes the time of any future event more definitely by representing it as completed before the occurrence of some other future event; as, I shall have plowed the field when he plants it.*

FORMS OF THE TENSES.

408. The **Present Tense** has three forms: (1) The *simple form* to denote habitual action, or what is true at all times; as, *I write*. (2) The *progressive form* to denote that the action is now going on; as, *I am writing*. (3) The *emphatic form* to express a thing with more emphasis; as, *I do write*.

(a) The *progressive form* always distinguishes a continuous from an instantaneous act.

(b) The present tense is often used instead of the past to denote a single past action; as, "He *walks* (walked) up to the man and *knocks* (knocked) him down." This is called the *historical present*. It is used frequently by the historian, the poet, and the orator to give animation to their description.

(c) The present tense is often used instead of the future when the future is conceived of as present; as, "When he *has* an opportunity he will speak about it."

(d) The present tense is used to denote general truths or what is true at all times. This statement is true with regard to principal propositions, but in subordinate propositions it does not always hold. "The earth *is* a sphere," and "The sum of the three angles of any triangle *is* equal to two right angles," are correct sentences; but "Columbus believed that the earth *is* a sphere," and "Some old mathematician proved that the sum of the three angles of any triangle *is* equal to two right angles," cannot claim to be more than elegant examples of false syntax, notwithstanding the sanction of nearly all the grammarians and the warrant of nearly all our writers and speakers that claim to use the most faultless English. Such a sentence expresses a logical contradiction, and neither usage nor grammarians can long preserve a form of expression that implies inconsistency in thought, after its absurdity has once been pointed out. Columbus had no belief, or at least it is not the intention of the above sentence to express such a belief, about what the shape of the earth *would* be four hundred years after his death; his belief was concerning its shape at the time he was believing, and that is just what

the sentence ought to express. "That the earth is a sphere" has not always been regarded as a general truth, or nothing would ever have been said about Columbus believing it. It was just as much a general truth to Aristotle "that the earth was flat"; and no one would ever say, "Aristotle believed that the earth *is* flat." It is indeed very difficult, even for the most learned, to know what truths are general truths. Most grammarians would have us say, "Plato believed that the soul *is* immortal," but they would have us say, "Plato believed that the souls of men *became* the souls of beasts." The present tense is used in the one case because the belief is still held; the past tense in the other case because the belief is now given up. What could be more ridiculously absurd than such a standard for determining the tense of a verb? Our boys and girls from the common schools ought to be able to speak correctly; but according to such a standard they would have to be familiar with the history of thought through all times, that they might know what theories had endured and what ones had been abandoned, and they would have to be masters in theology and metaphysics that they might distinguish general from contingent truths, before they could determine upon the tense for the verb in such subordinate sentences. Such matters must be determined wholly by grammatical principles, not by a perfect knowledge of everything. By the law of sequence of tenses a present in the subordinate cannot follow a past in the principal sentence, unless the verb in the subordinate sentence is in-finite. All such as the above could be correctly expressed by using the present infinitive in the subordinate sentence, because the time of the present infinitive is dependent upon that of the finite verb, and is present with reference to the time of the finite verb. "Columbus believed the earth *to be* a sphere" is a good sentence, and it expresses precisely the same as "Columbus believed that the earth *was* a sphere."

409. The Present Perfect Tense has two forms : (1) The *simple form* to denote any period of past time extending up to, and ending with, the present ; as, "I *have written*." (2) The *progressive form* to denote the continuation of the act through the period of time referred to ; as, "I *have been writing*."

410. The Past Tense has three forms : (1) The *simple form* to denote indefinitely any past time ; as, "I *wrote*." (2) The *progressive form* to denote continuation of an action through any past period not extending up to the

present; as, "*I was writing.*" (3) The *emphatic form* to denote emphasis; as, "*I did write.*"

411. The **Past Perfect Tense** has two forms: (1) The *simple form* to denote that the act was completed in a period of past time that extended up to, and ended with, some other specified past time; as, "*I had written the letter before he called for it.*" (2) The *progressive form* to denote that the action continued through the above-named period of past time; as, "*I had been writing the letter before he called for it.*"

412. The **Future Tense** has two forms: (1) The *simple form* to denote indefinitely the time of any future event; as, "*I shall write.*" (2) The *progressive form* to denote the continuation of the act through some period of future time; as, "*I shall be writing.*"

(a) It must be remembered that the past tense and the future, when not assisted by adverbs, denote time indefinitely; but may be followed by adverbs that denote the time very definitely; as, "*I went yesterday.*" "*He will come to-morrow.*"

413. The **Future Perfect Tense** has two forms: (1) The *simple form* to denote that an act will be completed in a period of future time that extends up to, and ends with, some other specified future time; as, "*I shall have written the letter before he calls for it.*"

(a) Here *calls*, which is present tense, refers to future time, by being used in connection with the word *before*.

(2) The *progressive form* to denote that the action is to continue through the above-named period of future time; as, "*I shall have been writing an hour when he comes.*"

SIGNS OF THE TENSES IN EACH OF THE MODES, ACTIVE VOICE.

414. The **Indicative Mode** has six tenses: —

- (1) *Present*: *Simple form* of the verb; *I write.*
- (2) *Past*: *Past indicative* of the verb; *I wrote.*

- (3) *Future* : *Shall* or *will* before the *simple form* ; *I shall write.*
- (4) *Present perfect* : *Have, hath, has, or has* before the *perfect participle* ; *I have written.*
- (5) *Past perfect* : *Had or hadst* before the *perfect participle* ; *I had written.*
- (6) *Future perfect* : *Shall have, or will have,* before the *perfect participle* ; *I shall have written.*

415. The Potential Mode has four tenses : —

- (1) *Present* : *May, can, or must* before the *simple form* ; *I may write.*
- (2) *Past* : *Might, could, would, or should* before the *simple form* ; *I might write.*
- (3) *Present perfect* : *May have, can have, or must have* before the *perfect participle* : *I may have written.*
- (4) *Past perfect* : *Might have, could have, would have, or should have* before the *perfect participle* ; *I might have written.*

416. The Subjunctive Mode most commonly has the *Present, Past, or Past Perfect* ; but it may be used in any of the six tenses. The signs are the same as in the Indicative and Potential.

417. The Imperative Mode has one tense : —

- (1) *Present* : *Write.*

418. The Infinitive Mode has two tenses : —

- (1) *Present* : *To* before the *simple form* ; *To write.*
- (2) *Present Perfect* : *To have* before the *perfect participle* ; *To have written.*

419. The Participial Mode has two tenses : —

- (1) *Present* : The form that ends in *ing* ; *Writing.*
- (2) *Present Perfect* : *Having* before the *perfect participle* ; *Having written.*

420. *Change each of the above verbs to the passive voice, preserving its tense.*

PERSON AND NUMBER.

421. **Person** and **Number** are the properties according to which the verb changes its form to suit the person and number of the subject; as, "I *write*." "He *writes*." "They *write*."

(a) Person and number belong only to finite verbs. Infinitives and participles never change their form for the person and number of their subject.

(b) Certain verbs, whose subject is usually the pronoun *it*, are sometimes called *impersonal* or *unipersonal* verbs; as, "It *thunders*." "It *hails*." "It *freezes*." But this is not a good distinction, and has been rejected by the best grammarians. Such verbs do often have for their subject nouns of different persons and numbers.

(c) As a rule, the modification of English verbs for person and number is confined to the present tense.

422. **Style** is sometimes named as one of the properties of verbs. There are four styles or forms of the verb:—

- | | |
|----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| (1) <i>Common</i> , I love. | (2) <i>Progressive</i> , I am loving. |
| (3) <i>Solemn</i> , Thou lovest. | (4) <i>Emphatic</i> , You did love. |

INFLECTION OF VERBS.

423. **Inflection** is any variation in form that a verb may undergo to indicate *voice*, *mode*, *tense*, *person*, and *number*, and its *principal parts*.

424. The **Conjugation** of a verb is the naming of its *principal parts*; its **Synopsis** is its variation in form through its different *voices*, *modes*, and *tenses*, in a *single person and number*; while **Inflection** is chiefly used to denote its *complete variation* through all its *voices*, *modes*, *tenses*, *persons*, and *numbers*. These are the meanings given to the terms by most grammarians, but not by all.

Let the class study with care the inflection of the verbs **Be** and **Move** given on the following pages. In this way we may best become able to know, from the form of any verb, its *voice*, *mode*, *tense*, *person*, and *number*.

425.

A. THE VERB "BE."

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present, Be ; *Past Indicative*, Was ; *Perfect Participle*, Been.

INFLECTION.

ORDINARY AND SOLEMN STYLES.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Ordinary Style.</i>	<i>Solemn Style.</i>	
1. I am.		1. We are.
2. You are.	Thou art.	2. You or ye are.
3. He, she, or it is.		3. They are.

PAST TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Ordinary Style.</i>	<i>Solemn Style.</i>	
1. I was.		1. We were.
2. You were.	Thou wast. ¹	2. You or ye were.
3. He, she, or it was.		3. They were.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Ordinary Style.</i>	<i>Solemn Style.</i>	
1. I have been.		1. We have been.
2. You have been.	Thou hast been.	2. You or ye have been.
3. He, she, or it has been.	He, she, or it hath been.	3. They have been.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Ordinary Style.</i>	<i>Solemn Style.</i>	
1. I had been.		1. We had been.
2. You had been.	Thou hadst been.	2. You or ye had been.
3. He, she, or it had been.		3. They had been.

¹ BE in the present and WERT in the past are old forms, not used except in the Scriptures.

FUTURE TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.**Ordinary Style.**Solemn Style.*

- | | | |
|----------------------------|---------------|-----------------------|
| 1. I shall be. | | 1. We shall be. |
| 2. You will be. | Thou wilt be. | 2. You or ye will be. |
| 3. He, she, or it will be. | | 3. They will be. |

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.**Ordinary Style.**Solemn Style.*

- | | | |
|-----------------------------------|----------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. I shall have been. | | 1. We shall have been. |
| 2. You will have been. | Thou wilt have been. | 2. You or ye will have been. |
| 3. He, she, or it will have been. | | 3. They will have been. |

POTENTIAL MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.**Ordinary Style.**Solemn Style.*

- | | | |
|---------------------------|----------------|----------------------|
| 1. I may be. | | 1. We may be. |
| 2. You may be. | Thou mayst be. | 2. You or ye may be. |
| 3. He, she, or it may be. | | 3. They may be. |

PAST TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.**Ordinary Style.**Solemn Style.*

- | | | |
|-----------------------------|------------------|------------------------|
| 1. I might be. | | 1. We might be. |
| 2. You might be. | Thou mightst be. | 2. You or ye might be. |
| 3. He, she, or it might be. | | 3. They might be. |

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.**Ordinary Style.**Solemn Style.*

- | | | |
|----------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. I may have been. | | 1. We may have been. |
| 2. You may have been. | Thou mayst have been. | 2. You or ye may have been. |
| 3. He, she, or it may have been. | | 3. They may have been. |

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.**Ordinary Style.**Solemn Style.*

- | | | |
|------------------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. I might have been. | | 1. We might have been. |
| 2. You might have been. | Thou mightst have been. | 2. You or ye might have been. |
| 3. He, she, or it might have been. | | 3. They might have been. |

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Ordinary Style.</i>	<i>Solemn Style.</i>	
1. If I be.		1. If we be.
2. If you be.	If thou be.	2. If you or ye be.
3. If he, she, or it be.		3. If they be.

PAST TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Ordinary Style.</i>	<i>Solemn Style.</i>	
1. If I were.		1. If we were.
2. If you were.	If thou wert.	2. If you or ye were.
3. If he, she, or it were.		3. If they were.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Ordinary Style.</i>	<i>Solemn Style.</i>	
1. If I had been.		1. If we had been.
2. If you had been.	If thou hadst been.	2. If you or ye had been.
3. If he, she, or it had been.		3. If they had been.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
2. Be, or do thou be.	2. Be, or do ye or you be.

INFINITIVE MODE.

<i>Present, To be.</i>	<i>Perfect, to have been.</i>
------------------------	-------------------------------

PARTICIPIAL MODE.

<i>Present, Being.</i>	<i>Perfect, Having been.</i>
------------------------	------------------------------

Remarks. — (a) By using the conjunction *if*, all the tenses of the Indicative and Potential Modes may be made conditional or subjunctive. We give above only the three tenses usually given.

(b) The verb *be* has no progressive style, and is emphatic only in the Imperative.

426. B. THE REGULAR TRANSITIVE VERB "MOVE."

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present, Move ; *Past Indicative*, Moved ; *Perfect Participle*, Moved.

INFLECTION.

ORDINARY AND SOLEMN STYLES.

ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Ordinary Style.</i>	<i>Solemn Style.</i>	
1. I move.		1. We move.
2. You move.	Thou movest.	2. You or ye move.
3. He, she, or it moves.	He, she, or it moveth.	3. They move.

PAST TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Ordinary Style.</i>	<i>Solemn Style.</i>	
1. I moved.		1. We moved.
2. You moved.	Thou movedst.	2. You or ye moved.
3. He, she, or it moved.		3. They moved.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Ordinary Style.</i>	<i>Solemn Style.</i>	
1. I have moved.		1. We have moved.
2. You have moved.	Thou hast moved.	2. You or ye have moved.
3. He, she, or it has moved.		3. They have moved.
	He, she, or it hath moved.	

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Ordinary Style.</i>	<i>Solemn Style.</i>	
1. I had moved.		1. We had moved.
2. You had moved.	Thou hadst moved.	2. You or ye had moved.
3. He, she, or it had moved.		3. They had moved.

FUTURE TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.**Ordinary Style.**Solemn Style.*

- | | | |
|------------------------------|-----------------|-------------------------|
| 1. I shall move. | | 1. We shall move. |
| 2. You will move. | Thou wilt move. | 2. You or ye will move. |
| 3. He, she, or it will move. | | 3. They will move. |

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.**Ordinary Style.**Solemn Style.*

- | | | |
|------------------------------------|-----------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. I shall have moved. | | 1. We shall have moved. |
| 2. You will have moved. | Thou wilt have moved. | 2. You or ye will have moved. |
| 3. He, she, or it will have moved. | | 3. They will have moved. |

POTENTIAL MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.**Ordinary Style.**Solemn Style.*

- | | | |
|-----------------------------|------------------|------------------------|
| 1. I may move. | | 1. We may move. |
| 2. You may move. | Thou mayst move. | 2. You or ye may move. |
| 3. He, she, or it may move. | | 3. They may move. |

PAST TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.**Ordinary Style.**Solemn Style.*

- | | | |
|-------------------------------|--------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. I might move. | | 1. We might move. |
| 2. You might move. | Thou mightst move. | 2. You or ye might move. |
| 3. He, she, or it might move. | | 3. They might move. |

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.**Ordinary Style.**Solemn Style.*

- | | | |
|-----------------------------------|------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. I may have moved. | | 1. We may have moved. |
| 2. You may have moved. | Thou mayst have moved. | 2. You or ye may have moved. |
| 3. He, she, or it may have moved. | | 3. They may have moved. |

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.**Ordinary Style.**Solemn Style.*

1. I might have moved.

1. We might have moved.

2. You might have moved.

2. You or ye might have moved.

Thou mightest have moved.

3. He, she, or it might have moved.

3. They might have moved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.**Ordinary Style.**Solemn Style.*

1. If I move.

1. If we move.

2. If you move.

If thou move.

2. If you or ye move.

3. If he, she, or it move.

3. If they move.

PAST TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.**Ordinary Style.**Solemn Style.*

1. If I moved.

1. If we moved.

2. If you moved.

If thou moved.

2. If you or ye moved.

3. If he, she, or it moved.

3. If they moved.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.**Ordinary Style.**Solemn Style.*

1. If I had moved.

1. If we had moved.

2. If you had moved. If thou hadst moved.

2. If you or ye had moved.

3. If he, she, or it had moved.

3. If they had moved.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

2. Move, or do thou move.

2. Move, or do ye or you move

INFINITIVE MODE.

*Present, To move.**Present Perfect, To have moved.*

PARTICIPIAL MODE.

*Present, Moving.**Present Perfect, Having moved.*

PASSIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.**Ordinary Style.**Solemn Style.*

- | | | |
|-----------------------------|-----------------|-------------------------|
| 1. I am moved. | | 1. We are moved. |
| 2. You are moved. | Thou art moved. | 2. You or ye are moved. |
| 3. He, she, or it is moved. | | 3. They are moved. |

PAST TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.**Ordinary Style.**Solemn Style.*

- | | | |
|------------------------------|------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. I was moved. | | 1. We were moved. |
| 2. You were moved. | Thou wast moved. | 2. You or ye were moved. |
| 3. He, she, or it was moved. | | 3. They were moved. |

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.**Ordinary Style.**Solemn Style.*

- | | | |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. I have been moved. | | 1. We have been moved. |
| 2. You have been moved. | | 2. You or ye have been moved. |
| | Thou hast been moved. | |
| 3. He, she, or it has been moved. | | 3. They have been moved. |
| | He, she, or it hath been moved. | |

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.**Ordinary Style.**Solemn Style.*

- | | | |
|-----------------------------------|------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. I had been moved. | | 1. We had been moved. |
| 2. You had been moved. | | 2. You or ye had been moved. |
| | Thou hadst been moved. | |
| 3. He, she, or it had been moved. | | 3. They had been moved. |

FUTURE TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.**Ordinary Style.**Solemn Style.*

- | | | |
|----------------------------------|---------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. I shall be moved. | | 1. We shall be moved. |
| 2. You will be moved. | Thou wilt be moved. | 2. You or ye will be moved. |
| 3. He, she, or it will be moved. | | 3. They will be moved. |

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.**Ordinary Style.**Solemn Style.*

- | | |
|---|------------------------------------|
| 1. I shall have been moved. | 1. We shall have been moved. |
| 2. You will have been moved. | 2. You or ye will have been moved. |
| | Thou wilt have been moved. |
| 3. He, she, or it will have been moved. | 3. They will have been moved. |

POTENTIAL MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.**Ordinary Style.**Solemn Style.*

- | | |
|---------------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. I may be moved. | 1. We may be moved. |
| 2. You may be moved. | 2. You or ye may be moved. |
| | Thou mayest be moved. |
| 3. He, she, or it may be moved. | 3. They may be moved. |

PAST TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.**Ordinary Style.**Solemn Style.*

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. I might be moved. | 1. We might be moved. |
| 2. You might be moved. | 2. You or ye might be moved. |
| | Thou mightst be moved. |
| 3. He, she, or it might be moved. | 3. They might be moved. |

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.**Ordinary Style.**Solemn Style.*

- | | |
|--|----------------------------------|
| 1. I may have been moved. | 1. We may have been moved. |
| 2. You may have been moved. | 2. You or ye may have been moved |
| | Thou mayst have been moved. |
| 3. He, she, or it may have been moved. | 3. They may have been moved. |

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.**Ordinary Style.**Solemn Style.*

- | | |
|--|-------------------------------------|
| 1. I might have been moved. | 1. We might have been moved. |
| 2. You might have been moved. | 2. You or ye might have been moved. |
| | Thou mightst have been moved. |
| 3. He, she, or it might have been moved. | 3. They might have been moved. |

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

SUBJUNCTIVE FORM.

The subjunctive form of the Subjunctive Mode is obsolescent, many of the best writers rejecting it and using only the indicative form.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Ordinary Style.</i>	<i>Solemn Style.</i>	
1. If I be moved.		1. If we be moved.
2. If you be moved.	If thou be moved.	2. If you or ye be moved.
3. If he, she, or it be moved.		3. If they be moved.

PAST TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Ordinary Style.</i>	<i>Solemn Style.</i>	
1. If I were moved.		1. If we were moved.
2. If you were moved.	If thou wert moved.	2. If you or ye were moved.
3. If he, she, or it were moved.		3. If they were moved.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Ordinary Style.</i>	<i>Solemn Style.</i>	
1. If I had been moved.		1. If we had been moved.
2. If you had been moved.	If thou hadst been moved.	2. If you or ye had been moved.
3. If he, she, or it had been moved.		3. If they had been moved.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
2. Be moved, or be thou moved.	2. Be moved, or be ye or you moved

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present, To be moved. *Present Perfect, To have been moved.*

PARTICIPIAL MODE.

Present, Being moved. *Present Perfect, Having been moved.*

PROGRESSIVE STYLE.

ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

Ordinary Style. *Solemn Style.*

- | | | |
|------------------------------|------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. I am moving. | | 1. We are moving. |
| 2. You are moving. | Thou art moving. | 2. You or ye are moving. |
| 3. He, she, or it is moving. | | 3. They are moving. |

PAST TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

Ordinary Style. *Solemn Style.*

- | | | |
|-------------------------------|-------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. I was moving. | | 1. We were moving. |
| 2. You were moving. | Thou wert moving. | 2. You or ye were moving. |
| 3. He, she, or it was moving. | | 3. They were moving. |

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

Ordinary Style. *Solemn Style.*

- | | | |
|------------------------------------|----------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. I have been moving. | | 1. We have been moving. |
| 2. You have been moving. | Thou hast been moving. | 2. You or ye have been moving. |
| 3. He, she, or it has been moving. | | 3. They have been moving. |
| | He, she, or it hath been moving. | |

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

Ordinary Style. *Solemn Style.*

- | | | |
|------------------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. I had been moving. | | 1. We had been moving. |
| 2. You had been moving. | Thou hadst been moving. | 2. You or ye had been moving. |
| 3. He, she, or it had been moving. | | 3. They had been moving. |

FUTURE TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

Ordinary Style. *Solemn Style.*

- | | | |
|-----------------------------------|----------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. I shall be moving. | | 1. We shall be moving. |
| 2. You will be moving. | Thou wilt be moving. | 2. You or ye will be moving. |
| 3. He, she, or it will be moving. | | 3. They will be moving. |

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.**Ordinary Style.**Solemn Style.*

- | | |
|--|-------------------------------------|
| 1. I shall have been moving. | 1. We shall have been moving. |
| 2. You will have been moving. | 2. You or ye will have been moving. |
| | Thou wilt have been moving. |
| 3. He, she, or it will have been moving. | 3. They will have been moving. |

POTENTIAL MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.**Ordinary Style.**Solemn Style.*

- | | |
|----------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. I may be moving. | 1. We may be moving. |
| 2. You may be moving. | 2. You or ye may be moving. |
| | Thou mayst be moving. |
| 3. He, she, or it may be moving. | 3. They may be moving. |

PAST TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.**Ordinary Style.**Solemn Style.*

- | | |
|------------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. I might be moving. | 1. We might be moving. |
| 2. You might be moving. | 2. You or ye might be moving. |
| | Thou mightst be moving. |
| 3. He, she, or it might be moving. | 3. They might be moving. |

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.**Ordinary Style.**Solemn Style.*

- | | |
|---|------------------------------------|
| 1. I may have been moving. | 1. We may have been moving. |
| 2. You may have been moving. | 2. You or ye may have been moving. |
| | Thou mayst have been moving. |
| 3. He, she, or it may have been moving. | 3. They may have been moving. |

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.**Ordinary Style.**Solemn Style.*

- | | |
|---|--------------------------------------|
| 1. I might have been moving. | 1. We might have been moving. |
| 2. You might have been moving. | 2. You or ye might have been moving. |
| | Thou mightst have been moving. |
| 3. He, she, or it might have been moving. | 3. They might have been moving. |

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.¹

PRESENT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.**Ordinary Style.**Solemn Style.*

- | | | |
|---------------------------------|--------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. If I be moving. | | 1. If we be moving. |
| 2. If you be moving. | If thou be moving. | 2. If you or ye be moving. |
| 3. If he, she, or it be moving. | | 3. If they be moving. |

PAST TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.**Ordinary Style.**Solemn Style.*

- | | | |
|-----------------------------------|----------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. If I were moving. | | 1. If we were moving. |
| 2. If you were moving. | If thou wert moving. | 2. If you or ye were moving. |
| 3. If he, she, or it were moving. | | 3. If they were moving. |

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.**Ordinary Style.**Solemn Style.*

- | | | |
|---------------------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. If I had been moving. | | 1. If we had been moving. |
| 2. If you had been moving. | If thou hadst been moving. | 2. If you or ye had been moving. |
| 3. If he, she, or it had been moving. | | 3. If they had been moving. |

IMPERATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|--|
| 2. Be moving, or do thou be moving. | 2. Be moving, or do ye or you be moving. |
|-------------------------------------|--|

INFINITIVE MODE.

*Present, To be moving.**Perfect, To have been moving.*

PARTICIPIAL MODE.

*Present, Being moving.**Perfect, Having been moving.*

¹ A verb in the subjunctive mode may have any of the six tenses, but to save space only tenses commonly given to the subjunctive are named here, *present*, *past*, and *past perfect*.

EMPHATIC STYLE.

ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.**Ordinary Style.**Solemn Style.*

- | | |
|------------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. I do move. | |
| 2. You do move. | Thou dost move. |
| 3. He, she, or it does move. | He, she, or it doth move. |

1. We do move.
2. You or ye do move.
3. They do move.

PAST TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.**Ordinary Style.**Solemn Style.*

- | | |
|-----------------------------|------------------|
| 1. I did move. | |
| 2. You did move. | Thou didst move. |
| 3. He, she, or it did move. | |

1. We did move.
2. You or ye did move.
3. They did move.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.**Ordinary Style.**Solemn Style.*

- | | |
|---------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. If I do move. | |
| 2. If you do move. | If thou dost move. |
| 3. If he, she, or it does move. | If he, she, or it doth move. |

1. If we do move.
2. If you or ye do move.
3. If they do move.

PAST TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.**Ordinary Style.**Solemn Style.*

- | | |
|--------------------------------|---------------------|
| 1. If I did move. | |
| 2. If you did move. | If thou didst move. |
| 3. If he, she, or it did move. | |

1. If we did move.
2. If you or ye did move.
3. If they did move.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

*Singular.**Plural.*

2. Do thou move.

2. Do ye move.

427. Model for Parsing Verbs.

- (1) SPECIES.
- (2) CLASSES, (a) transitive or intransitive; (b) attributive or copulative; (c) regular or irregular. (If irregular, give principal parts.)
- (3) PROPERTIES, (a) voice, (b) mode, (c) tense, (d) person and number.
- (4) CONSTRUCTION (agreement with subject).
- (5) RULE.

(a) All the uses of a verb cannot very conveniently be stated in the parsing, but may be made clear by the questions and explanations of the teacher and class. (b) See complete outline of the verb.

428. Parsing.

The hunter *killed* the bear.

I *am* sick.

They *will have been invited*.

He *was considered* honest.

Killed, v., trans., attrib., reg., act., ind., past, 3d, sing., to agree with its subj. *hunter*, R. XV.

Am, v., intrans., cop., irreg., — am, was, been, — ind., pres., 1st, sing., to agree with its subj. *I*, R. XV.

Will have been invited. v., trans., attrib., reg., pass., ind., fut. per., 3d, plu., to agree with its subj. *they*, R. XV.

Was considered, v., trans., cop., reg., pass., ind., past, 3d, sing., to agree with its subj. *he*, R. XV.

429. Write the complete parsing of all finite verbs. When possible, change active verbs to passive, and expand each attributive verb into a copula and an attributive.

- A. (1) Plato reasons well.
- (2) Every triangle has three sides.
- (3) He has sold his farm.
- (4) You may come after your work is finished.
- (5) If I were you I would try that.
- (6) Get wisdom.
- (7) Get out of the way.
- (8) James says that the pudding tastes sour.

- (9) I believe I will taste it.
 - (10) The man struck the boy.
 - (11) The ship struck on a rock.
 - (12) The city surrendered to the enemy.
 - (13) The general surrendered the fort.
 - (14) The rose smells sweet.
 - (15) He is talking nonsense.
 - (16) He may come.
 - (17) Must I bear all this?
 - (18) I can write a letter.
 - (19) You should study.
 - (20) If I were you, I would try to do better.
 - (21) Though he slay me, yet will I trust him.
 - (22) If he is here, ask him to come in.
 - (23) If he was hurt, he kept it to himself.
 - (24) If I could assist you, I would willingly.
 - (25) If he would study, he might improve.
 - (26) Send me a dollar.
 - (27) Troy was, but is no more.
 - (28) He is poor now, and will always be.
 - (29) What was is no more, and what is will not be.
 - (30) Bryant is the author of *Thanatopsis*.
 - (31) The place was covered with flowers.
 - (32) The state-house is building.
 - (33) Thou didst create this wondrous world.
 - (34) The hunters had killed a bear.
 - (35) When I have completed this grammar, I will visit you.
 - (36) The storm may have broken down the old apple tree.
 - (37) If you should write to her, it might appear that I had requested it.
 - (38) Shall we submit to chains and slavery?
 - (39) I would I were with him.
 - (40) He was born great.
 - (41) How *do* you *do*, George?
- B. (1) Go, wash your face, and get ready for school.
- (2) Green be their graves.
 - (3) You ought to go.
 - (4) The lady is accomplished.
 - (5) The task was not accomplished in a day.
 - (6) I could not go because my buggy was broken.
 - (7) My buggy was broken when my horse ran away.
 - (8) To the next circle, teacher, bend thy steps,
And from the wall dismount we, for as hence

I hear and understand not, so I see
Beneath, and naught discern.

— *Cary's Dante's Inferno, line 71, canto 24.*

- (9) Pass we then,
For so Heaven's pleasure is. — *Id., line 80, canto 21.*
- (10) If you wish to know the truth, speak the truth.
- (11) The noble Brutus
Hath told you that Cæsar was ambitious :
If it were so, it was a grievous fault,
And grievously hath Cæsar answered it. — *Shakespeare.*
- (12) The mountains look on Marathon,
And Marathon looks on the sea ;
And musing there an hour alone,
I dreamed that Greece might still be free ;
For standing on the Persian's grave,
I could not deem myself a slave. — *Byron.*

430. Outline of Verbs.

1a. Classes.

1b. According to their relation to *subjects*.

1c. Finite.

2c. In-finite.

1d. Infinitive. } For discussion and outline of the in-finite verbs,
2d. Participle. } see Index.

2b. According to their action's relation to objects.

1c. Transitive.

2c. Intransitive.

3b. According to their completeness of predication.

1c. Attributive.

2c. Copulative.

4b. According to their form.

1c. Regular.

2c. Irregular.

1d. Complete.

2d. Redundant.

3d. Defective.

5b. According to their rank.

1c. Principal.

2c. Auxiliary : Those used in the conjugation of other verbs.

2a. Parts.

1b. Principal.

1c. Present Indicative.

- 2c. Past indicative.
- 3c. Perfect participle.
- 2b. Auxiliary.
- 3a. Properties.
 - 1b. Voice.
 - 1c. Active.
 - 2c. Passive.
 - 2b. Mode.
 - 1c. Indicative.
 - 2c. Potential.
 - 3c. Subjunctive.
 - 4c. Infinitive.
 - 5c. Participial. } See "Discussion of the In-finite Verbs."
 - 6c. Imperative.
- 3b. Tense.
 - 1c. Primary.
 - 1d. Present.
 - 2d. Past.
 - 3d. Future.
 - 2c. Secondary.
 - 1d. Present perfect.
 - 2d. Past perfect.
 - 3d. Future perfect.
- 4b. Person.
- 5b. Number.

SYNTAX OF VERBS.

431. RULE XV. — *A finite verb agrees with its subject in person and number.*

Example. — "I plow." "He plows." "They plow."

(a) A verb having two or more subjects connected by *and*, must be plural; as, "He and I *are* brothers."

(b) A verb following two or more singular subjects connected by *or*, or *nor*, must be singular; as, "He or she *goes*." "Either the lawyer or the doctor *was* mistaken."

(c) A verb following two or more plural subjects connected by *or*, or *nor*, must be plural; as, "We or they *are* wrong." "The men or the women *were* mistaken."

(d) A verb cannot have two or more nominatives differing in number or in person and joined by *or* or *nor*. When two or more of such nominatives stand in a sentence before one verb, the verb agrees with the one nearest to it, and a verb is understood with each of the others.

(1) *Put the plural subject next to the verb*; as, "Either the teacher or his pupils *were* to blame."

(2) Let the first person be next to the verb, the third person next in order, and the second person farthest from the verb; as, "You, he, or I am mistaken." "You or she *is* mistaken." But it is always better in such cases to rewrite the sentence, giving each nominative its own verb, if it can be done without making the sentence sound too formal; as, "Either the teacher *was* to blame, or his pupils *were*." "You *are* mistaken, or she *is*."

(e) An appositive modifying the subject expresses the subordinate idea, and does not affect the form of the verb; as, "I, your master, *command* you;" or, "Your master, I, *commands* you."

(f) A verb having for its subject a collective noun, conveying the idea of *unity*, must be singular; as, "The army *was* divided." "This jury *says* he is guilty, but the other jury *does* not agree with this one." "The regiment *is* made up of two thousand men."

(g) A verb having for its subject a collective noun, conveying the idea of *plurality*, must be plural; as, "The whole army *are* happy." "The jury *are* not agreed." "The regiment *were* laughing and talking." "Your club *wear* blue uniforms, but our club *do* not dress in uniform."

(1) It is a matter of importance to the pupil that he be able to distinguish the two ideas conveyed by the collective noun, — that of *unity*, and that of *plurality*.

(2) It is many times impossible to determine whether the collective noun expresses the idea of *unity* or that of *plurality*, since it depends, in most instances, upon the particular conception the speaker took of the collection of objects. In the plural sense, the collective noun has been compared to a rope having its strands or threads untwisted; in the singular, to the same in a twisted state. We may say, as a general rule, that *when the term denotes separation, distribution, or diversity, in regard to place, time, action, or state, the verb should be plural; otherwise singular*. Say, "The public *are* respectfully invited." "My family *are* in the country" (different places). "My family *is* in the country" (the same place). "The committee *was* large." "The committee *were* not agreed." "Congress *has* adjourned." "A number of boats *have* passed up the river this spring, and the number *is* increasing daily." The last example shows the distinction in its greatest nicety.

(h) The pronoun *you*, whether singular or plural, should always have a plural verb; as, "You (one or many) *were* mistaken."

(i) An adjunct, or prepositional phrase, joined to the subject must not be allowed to affect the form of the verb. Do not say, "The deriva-

tion of such words *are* uncertain;" "The examination of his friends *show* him to be a bankrupt."

(j) Be careful to use the right form of the verb when the sentence is introduced by such words as *hence*, or *there*. Do not say, "Hence *arises* eight parts of speech;" "There *was* differences between them," etc.

432. Review of Verbs.

(1) Define a verb. Illustrate. (2) How do verbs resemble propositions, conjunctions, conjunctive adverbs, and relative pronouns? (3) What is meant by a verb phrase? Illustrate. (4) What can you say about the verb with reference to every predicate. (5) Classify verbs on five different bases. (6) Define and illustrate: (a) finite, in-finite verbs; (b) transitive, intransitive; (c) attributive, copulative; (d) regular, irregular; (e) principal, auxiliary. (7) Criticise these definitions: *A transitive verb is one that requires an object; an intransitive verb is one that does not require an object.* (8) Is a verb always transitive if its action terminates on an object? Illustrate. (9) What may complete a copulative verb? Illustrate. (10) Name and illustrate the classes of copulas. (11) What is meant by the principal parts of verbs? Illustrate. (12) Define and illustrate strong and weak verbs. (13) Name ten irregular verbs that are often misused, give the principal parts of each, use each of the principal parts in a sentence. (14) Give general directions for using the auxiliaries *shall*, *will*, *should*, and *would*. (15) Illustrate a correct and also an incorrect use of each. (16) What properties belong to the verb? (17) Define and illustrate each. (18) When is a verb in the active voice? Illustrate. (19) When is a verb in the passive voice? Illustrate. (20) Tell how an active verb may be changed to the passive voice. Illustrate. (21) Can an intransitive verb be put into the passive voice? Why? Illustrate. (22) Name, define, and illustrate each of the modes. (23) Explain fully the use of the subjunctive mode. (24) What can you say about the relation between form of the verb and mode? (25) Name two general divisions of tense. (26) Name and define each of the three primary tenses and each of the secondary tenses; illustrate each with a regular and an irregular verb, in the active and the passive voice. (27) What is meant by person and number of the verb? (28) What is meant by conjugation, synopsis, inflection?

433. *Supply suitable verbs in the following blanks. See that the verbs are in the present tense, so that their agreement with their subjects may be noted:—*

- (1) Either he or I — to blame.
- (2) You or Thomas — mistaken.
- (3) Either the teacher or the pupils — to blame.
- (4) Which of these two books — best ?
- (5) The condition of the roads — very bad.
- (6) What sounds — each of the vowels ?
- (7) Hence — the following advantages.
- (8) Neither the boy nor his brother — very industrious.
- (9) Which of the soldiers — received pensions ?
- (10) Everybody — very kind to me.
- (11) I knew that you — my father's friend.

434. *Write five sentences in which the verbs have each two or more subjects joined by and.*

435. *Write five sentences in which each verb follows two or more singular subjects joined by or or nor.*

436. *Write five sentences, each containing but one verb, following two or more nominatives, differing in number, and joined by or or nor.*

437. *Write five sentences, each containing but one verb, following two or more nominatives, differing in person, and joined by or or nor.*

438. *Write sentences in which the collective nouns, school, assembly, band (of musicians), crowd, pair, family, are used as subjects of singular verbs.*

439. *Write sentences in which they are used as subjects of plural verbs.*

THE ADVERB.

- 440.
1. John writes *correctly*.
 2. He is *exceedingly* careful.
 3. He does *tolerably well*.
 4. I am *not* an artist.

441. In (1) *writes* expresses an attribute, and *correctly* expresses an *attribute of this attribute*. In (2) *exceedingly* expresses an *attribute of the attribute* expressed by *careful*. In (3) *tolerably* expresses an *attribute of the attribute* expressed by *well*. In (4) *am* expresses the *connection* between the ideas expressed by *I* and *artist*, and *not* expresses an *attribute of the connection*. All such as the words italicized in the four sentences above are **adverbs**.

442. **An Adverb** is the part of speech that expresses an attribute of an attribute or of a connection. Or,—

443. **An Adverb** is a word that usually modifies a verb, adjective, or other adverb.

444. As the name *adverb* suggests, the principal use of this part of speech is to modify the verb; but it may modify:—

- (1) **A verb**; as, "He *talks intelligently*."
- (2) **An adjective**; as, "She is *very lazy*."
- (3) **An adverb**; as, "He works *well enough*."
- (4) **A prepositional phrase**; as, "Has the Lord spoken *only by Moses*?"

(a) Sometimes the adverb is used independently; as, "Did he come?" "Yes." The adverbs *yes* and *no* are often said to modify entire propositions; but the truth is, that they are *equivalent to entire propositions*. To the question, "*Did he come?*" there may be two affirmative answers: "*He did come,*" and "*Yes.*" Sometimes both answers are given to one question; as, "*Yes, he did come,*" but it is simply repeating the answer for emphasis. *Yes* and *no* are responsive adverbs used independently. *Yes* is of *affirmation*; *no*, of *negation*.

(b) The adverb frequently modifies a word understood; as, "When will he come again?" "*Sometime*." Here, *sometime* modifies the verb *will come*, understood.

CLASSES OF ADVERBS AS TO USE.

445. Most adverbs, like those given above, *have but a single use — a modifying use*. They are **simple adverbs**.

446. A **Simple Adverb** is *one having only a modifying use*.

447. But in "The tree lies *where* it fell," and "He came *when* he was wanted," *where* and *when* are *adverbs*, because they limit their verbs so as to express the ideas of *place* and *time*. And in addition to this modifying use, each has another, — it joins its clause to the preceding verb, which the clause limits. That is, in addition to its adverbial use it has a conjunctive use. Such words are therefore called **conjunctive adverbs**.

448. A **Conjunctive Adverb** is *one that modifies some word in a subordinate clause, which it joins to some part of a principal sentence*.

SUB-CLASSES OF SIMPLE ADVERBS.

449. Every simple adverb is either **responsive** or **interrogative**. Most adverbs are *responsive*; as: —

He walks *rapidly*.

He stands *there*.

He came *recently*.

450. A few adverbs, such as *how*, *where*, *when*, and *why*, when used to ask or imply questions, are *interrogative adverbs*; as: —

How does he walk? I know *how* he walks.

Where does he stand? I know *where* he stands.

When did he come? I know *when* he came.

451. In the three sentences to the left, *how*, *where*, and *when* ask direct questions, and are therefore called **direct interrogative adverbs**; in the three to the right, they indi-

rectly imply questions, and are therefore called **indirect interrogative adverbs**.

(a) The **direct interrogative adverb** may be used in either a **principal** or a **subordinate** sentence; as :—

When did he come? *When* do you think he came?

The **indirect interrogative adverb** is always found in a **subordinate** sentence.

(b) The **clause** in which an indirect interrogative adverb is found is always **substantive**. It may be :—

(1) **Subject of a finite verb**; as, "*Where is he?* is the question."

(2) **Complement of a finite copula**; as, The question is, "*Where is he?*"

(3) **In apposition**; as, The question, "*Where is he?* is answered."

(4) **Object of a transitive verb**; as, "I ask, *Where is he?*"

(5) **Object of a preposition**; as, "We talked about *where he is*."

(6) **Subject of an infinitive**; as, "We believe *Where is he?* to have been answered."

(7) **Complement of an infinitive copula**; as, "We thought the question to be, *Where is he?*"

(c) **We must not make the mistake** of calling indirect interrogative adverbs connectives. *A substantive clause needs no connective. No interrogative word, direct or indirect, is ever a connective.*

CLASSES OF CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS.

452. Ordinarily a conjunctive adverb *joins an adverbial clause to a verb, adjective, or adverb*; as :—

You **walk** *as* I direct.

You will find him **happy** *as* a king.

You are **as** tall *as* he.

453. These we may call **Ordinary Conjunctive Adverbs**.

454. Sometimes a conjunctive adverb *joins an adjective clause to a substantive*; as :—

This is the **place** *where* the accident occurred.

It was a **time** *when* all were serious.

455. Such words have the same connective force as relative pronouns; they are therefore called **Relative Conjunctive Adverbs**.

(a) A conjunctive adverb is usually equivalent to two prepositional phrases; as, "Come *when* you are wanted" = "Come *at the time at which* you are wanted." "It lies *where* you left it" = "It lies *in the place in which* you left it." "She is as good as I" = "She is good *to the degree to which* I am good." In such sentences as the last the conjunctive adverb is equivalent to but one phrase, the force of the first phrase being expressed by the first *as*. Relative conjunctive adverbs also are equivalent to but one phrase; as, "The house *where* it occurred" = "The house *in which* it occurred."

(b) The teacher will find it a very profitable exercise to have the class rewrite sentences containing conjunctive adverbs, expanding them into their equivalent phrase or phrases. They may thus see clearly the exact idea expressed by every conjunctive adverb.

(c) It is not accurate to say that a conjunctive adverb connects two sentences. *It always joins a subordinate sentence to the part of the principal modified by the subordinate.* Nor should we say a conjunctive adverb modifies a word in each sentence. *It always modifies a word in its subordinate sentence, and the entire subordinate sentence modifies some word in the principal.* Thus in,

You should eat *where* you work,

where is the conjunctive adverb; it limits *work*, and the entire clause, *where you work*, limits the verb *should eat*.

456. Distinguish the uses of *where* in :—

- (1) *Where* is Paul? — **Direct Interrogative Adverb.**
- (2) I know *where* Paul is, — **Indirect Interrogative Adverb.**
- (3) I am happy *where* Paul is, — **Ordinary Conjunctive Adverb.**
- (4) I like the place *where* Paul is, — **Relative Conjunctive Adverb.**

457. Remember :—

- (1) The **direct interrogative adverb** directly asks a question and may be in either a principal or a subordinate sentence.
- (2) The **indirect interrogative adverb** only implies a question and is always in a substantive clause.

- (3) The **ordinary conjunctive adverb** always limits some word in an adverbial clause, which it joins to some part of the principal sentence.
- (4) The **relative conjunctive adverb** always limits some word in an adjective clause, which it joins to a substantive in the principal sentence.

458. Mark the ambiguity in such sentences as, "I know *when* I am on my feet," and the disposition of *when* corresponding to each signification.

CLASSES OF ADVERBS AS TO MEANING.

459. Adverbs of time; *expressing the idea of time*, either when, how long, or how often; as : —

Ever, never, always, continually, constantly, endlessly, forever, incessantly, everlastingly, evermore, aye, then, meanwhile, meantime, when, whenever, as, while, subsequently, after, afterwards, otherwhile, before, late, early, again, oftentimes, sometimes, occasionally, rarely, frequently, now and then, weekly, daily, monthly, yearly, newly, anew, now, to-day, nowadays, yet, as yet, yesterday, heretofore, recently, lately, of late, formerly, already, just now, anciently, as soon as, long since, long ago, erewhile, till now, hereafter, soon, to-morrow, ere long, by and by, instantly, momentarily, directly, forthwith, not yet, anon.

460. Adverbs of place; *those suggesting the idea of place*, as : —

Here, there, yonder, everywhere, where, somewhere, anywhere, nowhere, wherever, wheresoever, herein, therein, hereabouts, thereabouts, whereabouts, hereby, thereby, aground, on high, whence, hence, elsewhere, off, afar, about, beneath, above, before, behind, under, within, without, whither, hither, up, down, backwards, forwards, hitherwards, aground, nigh.

461. Adverbs of manner; *those answering or asking the question, how* : —

So, thus, well, ill, wisely, foolishly, justly, how, anyhow, somehow, however, howsoever, otherwise, least, likewise, as, extremely, at length,

lengthwise, suitably, considerably, happily, extensively, together, separately, accordingly, creditably, necessarily, really, certainly, foot by foot, so so, wholly, clearly, namely, silently, feelingly, surprisingly, mournfully, merely, proportionally, verily.

462. Adverbs of degree ; those suggesting the idea of how much, how little, or to what extent : —

Much, more, most, little, less, least, far, by far, farther, very, too, mostly, entirely, actually, in general, totally, highly, perfectly, all, altogether, quite, constantly, extravagantly, immeasurably, immensely, painlessly, infinitely, clear, nearly, well-nigh, partly, partially, intensely, exclusively, scantily, precisely, enough, exactly, even, ever so, just as, sufficiently, somewhat, at all, simply, brightly, particularly, especially, in particular, also, besides, still, likewise, moreover, furthermore.

463. Adverbs of cause, purpose, or reason ; those answering the question, why : —

Why, wherefore, hence, therefore, then, thence, consequently, whereby, hereby, thereby.

464. Adverbs of doubt ; as : —

Perhaps, probably, perchance, possibly, doubtfully, doubtless, certainly.

465. Adverbs of affirmation or negation : —

Yes, no, not, yea, aye, nay.

(a) The classification cannot be complete, because it would be impossible to name all the different ideas that may be expressed by the adverb. In parsing, the pupil should, if possible, refer the adverb to one of the classes named ; but if he finds one that cannot be referred to any of these classes, he must make a new class to suit it.

(b) *Adverbs of doubt* are usually given as subdivisions of adverbs of manner, but this is a wrong classification. No one of these adverbs of doubt answers to a question concerning the manner of an action. If the question, *How did he go?* were asked, it could not be answered by the word *perhaps*. It must be kept in mind that the adverb must always be named according to the *idea that it expresses*.

(c) Adverbs that denote the *manner of the expression rather than the manner of an action*, are called **modal adverbs** ; as, *truly, verily*, etc. Thus in the sentence, "*Truly* he came," *truly* does not refer to the *coming*, but to the *saying*. Such adverbs may, for convenience, be parsed

as modifying the verb in the sentence in which they are found, but in reality they modify the verb *say*, understood.

(d) An adverb used to ask a question is called an **interrogative adverb**. All others may be regarded as **responsive**.

(e) Adverbs are often used in connection with the verb to express time more definitely; as, I shall go *presently*.

(f) A combination of words used as a single adverb may be parsed as an **adverbial phrase**; as, *by and by*, *day and night*, *so so*, *again and again*, *at random*, *in vain*, *at least*, *on high*, *in fine*, *at present*, *at last*, *out and out*, *through and through*, *no more*, *man by man*. But when the combination does not have the force of a single adverb, the words should be parsed separately; as, "He signed it *then* and *there*." *Then* expresses the idea of time, and *there* of place; they cannot therefore be parsed together.

(g) A few adverbs are used merely to introduce a sentence. They should then be parsed as **introductory expletives**. They have no modifying force in the sentence; as, "*There* were fifty men present." "*Why*, did you see Jones, yesterday?" "*Well!* what did you think of it?"

COMPARISON.

466. Adverbs, like adjectives, have one property, — **comparison**; as, *loud*, *louder*, *loudest*; *well*, *better*, *best*; *brightly*, *more brightly*, *most brightly*. The kinds, methods, and degrees are the same as those of the adjective.

(a) The rule for the comparative and superlative of adjectives will apply to the comparative and superlative of adverbs.

467. Parsing of Adverbs.

- | | | |
|-------------|----------------|------------------|
| 1. Species. | 3. Comparison. | 5. Construction. |
| 2. Classes. | 4. Degree. | 6. Rule. |

Work *diligently while* the sun shines.

We walked to the kennel *where* the puppies were playing.

Diligently, adv., of manner — diligently, more diligently, most diligently, — pos. degree, and limits *work*, R. XI.

While, adv., conj., of time; it limits *shines* and joins its clause, *while the sun shines*, to *work*, R. XI.

Where, adv., relative, of place; it limits *were playing*, and joins its clause, *where the puppies were playing*, to *kennel*, R. XI.

(a) The pupil should always name the phrase or phrases to which the conjunctive adverb is equivalent. When a conjunctive adverb joins its clause to a noun or pronoun it is equivalent to but one phrase, and should be called a relative conjunctive adverb.

468. *Parse nouns, pronouns, adjectives, and verbs orally by abridged model. Write the parsing of the adverb.*

- A. (1) She sang sweetly.
 (2) The wind moaned mournfully over her grave.
 (3) When shall I see you again ? Sometime.
 (4) They lived very happily.
 (5) We were agreeably disappointed.
 (6) Do you expect them to-morrow ? Yes.
 (7) She is continually changing her mind.
 (8) It cannot be true.
 (9) Perhaps I shall go.
 (10) Doubtless it is true.
- B. (1) Time is ever flying.
 (2) When will the house be covered ? To-morrow.
 (3) How often do you lecture ? Never.
 (4) We see, therefore we believe.
 (5) How well can she play ?
 (6) How well she can play !
 (7) How shall we act ? Wisely.
 (8) How is Ruth ? Sick.
 (9) They burst their bonds asunder.
 (10) Perhaps there were fifty men fighting bravely.
 (11) The old house stands right over the way.
 (12) They work day and night.
 (13) She stood silent as she heard the sad news.
 (14) Thoughts do often lie too deep for tears.
 (15) The stick was a trifle too weak to bear well his weight.
 (16) Be it ever so humble, there is no place like home.
 (17) Never shall we see his like again.
 (18) I shall meet my friend when the boat arrives.
 (19) The lilies grow where the ground is moist.
 (20) The patriot answers whenever his country calls.
 (21) Whither I go ye cannot come.
 (22) Ere the day dawns he will die. } (See Preposition.)
 (23) He came before I left. }
 (24) It is uncertain where Homer was born.
 (25) Newton discovered why an apple falls.

- (26) Logic teaches how we think.
 (27) Make hay while the sun shines.
 (28) As we labor so shall we be rewarded.
 (29) As is the boy so will be the man.
 (30) When you have finished your task, then you may rest.
 (31) Mr. Brown, *how* do you do ?
 (32) Can you see *where* he sits ?
 (33) Did you hear *when* he came ?
 (34) The season *when* the buds open is spring.
 (35) The question, *when* shall we three meet again, was asked and answered by the witches.
 (36) Can you guess *when* I disturb you ?

469. Outline of Adverbs.

- | | |
|--------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1a. Division. | 2b. As to meaning. |
| 1b. As to use. | 1c. Time. |
| 1c. Simple. | 2c. Place. |
| 1d. Limiting. | 3c. Cause. |
| 1e. Interrogative. | 4c. Manner. |
| 2e. Responsive. | 5c. Degree. |
| 2d. Independent. | 6c. Doubt. |
| 2c. Conjunctive. | 7c. Affirmation. |
| 1d. Ordinary. | 8c. Negation. |
| 2d. Relative. | 2a. Comparison : (See Adjective.) |

SYNTAX OF ADVERBS.

470. *Adverbs usually limit verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs.*

(a) Not always, for sometimes an adverb limits a prepositional phrase, and sometimes it may be used independently.

(b) Two negatives make an affirmative; as, "I will *not* do it *no* more." "I have *not* had *no* bread to-day."

(c) The word following an intransitive verb should be an adjective or an adverb, according as we wish to refer to the *condition of the agent*, or the *manner of the action* expressed by the verb. Thus, if I wish to refer to the *condition* of the man, I say, "He looks *strange*;" but if I wish to describe the manner in which he *looked*, I say, "He looked *strangely* at me." And to refer to my condition at the time of my arrival I say, "I arrived *safe*," not *safely*.

(d) In poetry an adjective is often used instead of an adverb for the sake of the metre ; as, "The swallow sings *sweet* from her nest on the wall."

471. All liabilities to error in the use of the adverb may be reduced to three heads : **Choice, Form, and Position.**

472. (1) *Always use the adverb that expresses, or most nearly expresses, the meaning intended.*

(2) *Always use the best adverbial form of the word.*

(3) *Always give the adverb the position in the sentence that adds most to the correctness, clearness, and elegance of the expression.*

473. *Discuss the following sentences :—*

- (1) Do not walk so fast ; you will soon become weary.
- (2) She is less beautiful than he supposed.
- (3) All your neighbors were not invited.
- (4) How he got it again, I scarcely knew.
- (5) There cannot be found one man that is willing to undertake it.
- (6) The San Jacinto River flows through the southern part of Texas.
- (7) Whether you are willing or not, you will have to pay the debt.
- (8) Speak slow and distinctly.
- (9) She behaved very sillily.
- (10) He was running very rapidly, but suddenly stopped.
- (11) Two young ladies came to the party nearly dressed alike.
- (12) I am only tolerable well.
- (13) Suddenly there came a tapping, as of some one gently rapping, rapping at my chamber door.
- (14) The boy acted nobler than his brother.
- (15) The lady dresses remarkably elegant.
- (16) The fox is an exceeding artful animal.
- (17) He is exceeding clever.
- (18) You have been wrong informed on this subject.
- (19) Nothing further was said about the matter.
- (20) Come quick ! you walk too slow.
- (21) We remained a week at Galveston, and proceeded thence to Indianola.
- (22) No one is nobler or loftier than he.
- (23) We went back to the cave.
- (24) Such cloaks were in fashion about five years since.
- (25) I received the gift with pleasure, but I shall now gladder resign it.

(26) If you have only learned to spend money extravagantly at college, you may stay at home.

(27) Corn should be generally planted in April.

(28) Having lost once \$1000 by speculation, he will never have another chance.

(29) That was a remarkably fine speech.

(30) Having not considered the measures proposed, he failed of success.

(31) We do those things frequently which we repent of afterward.

(32) The flowers smell sweetly.

(33) At this place the mountains are considerably high and steep.

(34) I went by the house in a buggy.

474. Review of Adverbs.

(1) Define an adverb. (2) Illustrate what an adverb may modify. (3) Name, define and illustrate the classes of adverbs as to use. (4) Distinguish : direct interrogative, indirect interrogative, ordinary conjunctive, and relative conjunctive, adverb. (5) In what kind of a sentence is each used ? (6) State definitely the modifying and the connective use of each. (7) How may the clause containing an indirect interrogative adverb be used ? Illustrate with *when*. (8) Name, define, and illustrate the classes of adverbs as to meaning. (9) What are the chief errors in the use of adverbs ?

THE PREPOSITION.

475. He *spoke to the boys.* He *spoke to them.*
 He *came with Alta.* We *came with her.*

476. In each sentence above the two italicized words express ideas that are related, and the little word in black type *expresses the relation and governs the case of the substantive that follows it.* Such words are called **prepositions**.

477. *A Preposition is the part of speech that expresses relation without affirming it and governs a substantive called its object.*

(a) The italicized pronouns in the two sentences to the right show more clearly **the governing power of prepositions.**

(b) **The verb** is the only part of speech that **expresses relation by affirming it.** Besides the preposition, relative pronouns, conjunctive adverbs, and conjunctions express relation without affirming it; but of these, only the preposition can govern a substantive.

I. CLASSES OF PREPOSITIONS.

478. Prepositions are classified, according to their form, into :—

- (1) **Simple.** — *Single prepositions ; as, in, at, on, by, for, etc.*
- (2) **Compound.** — *Consisting of two or more prepositions ; as, from above, from under, etc.*
- (3) **Complex.** — *Any combination of different parts of speech used as a single preposition ; as, to the extent of, to the distance of, etc.*

II. TERMS OF RELATION.

479. Since prepositions are relation words and relation implies two objects, there are always **two terms of the relation** expressed by a preposition. These terms are called **object** and **antecedent**. The **object** is the substantive governed by the preposition, and the **antecedent** is the term to which the preposition joins the substantive.

480. *The object is always a substantive.* It may be : —

- (1) **A noun** : " We went to the *river*."
- (2) **A pronoun** : " He sat by *me*."
- (3) **An adverb** : In such expressions as, since *then*, before *then*, till *now*, to *here*, for *ever*, between *now* and *then*. (See Whitney's Grammar, p. 144.)
- (4) **An adjective** : " On *high*, of *old*, in *vain*, for *good*."
- (5) **An infinitive** : " She did nothing but [*to*] *cry*."
- (6) **A participle** : " She never thinks of *going* to school."
- (7) **A clause** : " We have been talking about *who deserves the prize*." " The labor of clearing land depends upon *how much timber there is on it*." " Reason and justice have been jurymen since before *Noah was a sailor*." " We started before *the sun set* " = " We started before *sunset*." " We supported him after *he was elected* " = " We supported him after *his election*." " He has not been seen since *he arrived* " = " He has not been seen since *his arrival*." " We shall wait till *morning comes* " = " We shall wait till *morning*." " He will remain until *Christmas comes* " = " He will remain until *Christmas*." " She may die ere *day dawns* " = " She may die ere *the dawn of day*."

(a) The words *after*, *before*, *since*, *till*, *until*, and *ere*, when followed by subordinate clauses, are unmistakably prepositions ; to parse them as conjunctive adverbs is inexcusable. That they are prepositions the following considerations will clearly establish : —

First, the clause following one of these words can always be abridged into a substantive that is certainly the object of this word, leaving the meaning of the original sentence unimpaired. The clause introduced by *when*, *where*, or any other word ever known to be a conjunctive adverb cannot be so abridged. Thus, " We shall start after dinner is over " = " We shall start after dinner ; " and in the latter sentence, which means precisely the same as the former, *after* is universally conceded to be a preposition. But, " We shall start when dinner is over " is not equivalent to " *We shall start when dinner*," for the italicized group of words means nothing and is therefore not a sentence.

Second, to dispose of any one of these words as a conjunctive adverb gives its sentence a meaning exactly the opposite of the one intended. For example, in " The man died *after* he made his will," if *after* is a conjunctive adverb, it must modify *made* so as to express the idea of time. That is, he made his will *after*. After what? There is but one other event mentioned ; that is, his death.

No, it is better to call these words prepositions governing the following clauses. And why not ?

(b) **The object** of a preposition sometimes seems to be a **phrase**, as in : —

He has lived there since *before the war*.

A spirit came from *above the clouds*.

A stream runs from *under the rocks*.

But it is much more convenient to call *since before, from above, from under*, and like combinations, *compound prepositions*, governing the following substantives.

481. The *antecedent* of a preposition is the word the phrase limits. It may be:—

- (1) A **verb**: "The book *lies* on the table."
- (2) A **noun**: "We saw the *city* in flames."
- (3) A **pronoun**: "Woe be unto *you* of little faith."
- (4) An **adjective**: "All reverence to the heads *hoary* with age."
- (5) An **adverb**: "I have read the book *sufficiently* for my purpose."
- (6) An **interjection**: "*Alas* for maiden, *alas* for judge."

482. The prepositions most commonly used are given in the following—

LIST. — A, aboard, about, above, according to, across, after, against, along, amid, amidst, among, amongst, around *or* round, as to, at, athwart, before, behind, below, beneath, beside *or* besides, between, betwixt, beyond, but, by, concerning, down, during, except, save, for, from, in, into, notwithstanding, of, on, out of, since, till *or* until, through, throughout, to, toward *or* towards, under, up, with, within, without.

(a) Most of the remaining prepositions are either *poetic, antique, technical, or comic*.

(b) *At* is now rarely used as a preposition except before a participial noun; as, We went *a* fishing.

(c) *Of* is used nearly as much as all the other prepositions together.

483. Parsing of Prepositions.

To parse a preposition is to state the part of speech to which it belongs, and name the object and antecedent between which it shows the relation.

484. It is generally very easy to determine the *object* of a preposition, and often difficult to find the *antecedent*; but the correct answer to two questions will always give both. (1) Put the interrogative *what* after the preposition to find the *object*; then (2) put the interrogative

what before the phrase to find *antecedent*. For example :
 "Frantically, they dashed that rapid torrent through."

(1) Through *what*? Through the *torrent*. (2) *What* through the torrent? *Dashed* through the torrent.

485. Model.

1. Preposition. 2. Relation. 3. Rule.

He came *from* the city.

From, prep., and shows the relation between *city* and *came*, R. XIII.

A. (1) He went with us.

(2) It fell through the air to the ground.

(3) Put it on the table or into your pocket.

(4) They stayed until night under shelter.

(5) He went from St. Louis, across the plains, to California.

(6) Light moves in straight lines, and in all directions from the point of emission.

B. (1) Night, sable goddess ! from her ebon throne,

In rayless majesty, now stretches forth

Her leaden sceptre o'er a slumbering world. — *Young*.

(2) All came but Mary.

(3) To him who in the love of nature holds

Communion with her visible forms, she speaks

A various language. — *Bryant*.

(4) Into the mouth of hell rode the Six Hundred.

(5) I left before he came.

(6) You have changed since I saw you.

(7) I shall go after he leaves.

(8) She will wait till you come.

(9) They will leave you ere you are aware.

(10) You must stay until the train arrives.

(11) The eulogium pronounced on the character of the State of South Carolina, by the honorable gentleman, for her revolutionary and other merits, meets my hearty concurrence. — *Webster*.

C. (1) From peak to peak, the rattling crags among,

Leaps the live thunder. — *Byron*.

(2) Day unto day uttereth speech, and night unto night showeth knowledge. — *Psalms* 19.

(3) He came from Rome to Paris, in the company of many eminent men, and passed with them through many cities.

- (4) Ah ! who can tell the triumphs of the mind,
By truth illumined, and by taste refined. — *Rogers*.
- (5) Or that choice plant, so grateful to the nose,
Which in I know not what far country grows. — *Churchill*.
- (6) He crossed the plains to search in the cañons for gold.
- (7) After the battle of Waterloo, Napoleon was banished to St. Helena, in the South Atlantic Ocean.
- (8) O'er bog or steep, through strait, rough, dense, or rare,
With head, hands, wings, or feet, pursues his way. — *Milton*.
- (9) At midnight, in his guarded tent,
The Turk lay dreaming of the hour
When Greece, her knee in supplicance bent,
Should tremble at his power.
In dreams, through camp and court, he bore
The trophies of a conqueror. — *Halleck*.
- (10) He crawled from under the ruins.

486. Outline of Prepositions.

- | | |
|------------------------|----------------------|
| 1a. Kinds. | 5c. An Adverb. |
| 1b. Simple. | 6c. An Interjection. |
| 2b. Compound. | 2b. Object. |
| 3b. Complex. | 1c. A Noun. |
| 2a. Terms of Relation. | 2c. A Pronoun. |
| 1b. Antecedent. | 3c. An Adverb. |
| 1c. A Verb. | 4c. An Adjective. |
| 2c. A Noun. | 5c. An Infinitive. |
| 3c. A Pronoun. | 6c. A Participle. |
| 4c. An Adjective. | 7c. A Clause. |

SYNTAX OF PREPOSITIONS.

487. RULE XIII. — *A preposition shows the relation of its object to the word the phrase limits.*

(a) When the object of a preposition is omitted it usually becomes an *adverb*, but sometimes an *adjective*: "It flew *up*, *around*, and *down* again." "It overlooked the plains *below*."

(b) One *preposition* may have several *antecedents*; as, "They *wash*, *iron*, *cook*, *eat*, and *sleep* in the same room."

(c) One *antecedent* may have several *prepositions*; as, "A *government* of the people, *by* the people, and *for* the people."

(d) One *preposition* may have several *objects*; as, "A positive law *against* all *fraud*, *falsehood*, and *violence*."

(e) One *object* may have several *prepositions*; as, "He ran *up, down, and across* the hall." "He approved *of*, and voted *for*, the *measure*." Better, "He approved of the measure and voted for it."

488. Use of Prepositions. — *All errors in the use of prepositions may be reduced to :—*

I. Choice. II. Position. III. Insertion or Omission.
IV. Repetition.

I. CHOICE.

489. Great care should be taken always to select the preposition that expresses precisely the relation intended. In doubtful cases, the dictionary should be consulted for the *object*, the *antecedent*, and the *preposition* itself.

490. Exercises to be corrected and then parsed :—

- (1) The sultry evening was followed with a rain.
- (2) He died with a fever (means both died).
- (3) The soil is adapted for wheat.
- (4) Congress consists in a Senate and House of Representatives.
- (5) Of what does happiness consist?
- (6) Religion and Christianity may differ widely with each other.
- (7) I differ from you in opinion.
- (8) Charles dropped his dollar in the creek.
- (9) The persecutions of the Quakers were barbarous.
- (10) He went out of a fine morning.
- (11) I have been to New Orleans.
- (12) He divided his estate between his son, daughter, and nephew.

II. POSITION.

491. (1) Phrases should be so placed in the sentence as to make it correct, clear, and elegant.

(2) As its name implies, the preposition should generally be placed immediately before its object.

492. Exercises to be corrected and then parsed :—

- (1) We saw a man digging a well with a Roman nose.
- (2) We heard a lecture on teaching geography at 10 o'clock.
- (3) These verses were written by a young man who has long since lain in his grave for amusement.
- (4) *Wanted.* — A young man to take care of horses of a religious turn of mind.

- (5) He went to see his friends on horseback.
- (6) Whom did he give it to ?

II. INSERTION AND OMISSION.

493. (1) Prepositions should not be inserted so as to destroy the proper connection of the different parts of the sentence.

- (2) Prepositions should not be omitted when required by the sense.

494. *Exercises to be corrected and then parsed:—*

- (1) It was in vain to remonstrate.
- (2) It was to your brother to whom I was indebted.
- (3) What use is it to me ?
- (4) She could not refrain shedding tears.
- (5) San Francisco is the other side the Rocky Mountains.
- (6) I admit of what you say.
- (7) Many talented men have deserted from the party.
- (8) California is not more noted for its gold than bears.
- (9) He was right in that which you blame him.
- (10) Ignorance is the mother of fear as well as admiration.

IV. REPETITION.

495. (1) A preposition having several objects must be used before *one only*, or *each*, of them.

- (2) To repeat the preposition before each object renders the sentence sometimes inelegant, sometimes forcible.

496. *Exercises to be corrected and then parsed:—*

- (1) He is a man of sagacity, experience, and of honesty.
- (2) By industry, by economy, and by good luck he accumulated a fortune.

497. Review of Prepositions.

- (1) Define the preposition.
- (2) How does a preposition resemble a verb ?
- (3) How is it unlike a verb ?
- (4) What other relation words can you name ?
- (5) What distinguishes the preposition from all of them ?
- (6) Name and illustrate the classes of prepositions.
- (7) What may the object of a preposition be ? What may the antecedent be ? Illustrate.
- (8) Name the prepositions that may govern clauses.
- (9) One preposition may have several antecedents ; one antecedent may have several prepositions ; one preposition may have several objects ; one object may have several prepositions. Illustrate with original sentences.
- (10) Classify and illustrate the errors common in the use of prepositions.

THE CONJUNCTION.

498. 1. *Men and boys* should be industrious.
 2. We should be gentle *with children and with horses*.
 3. He endeavored *to stand and to say something*.
 4. *The rain descended and the floods came*.
 5. *Words are weak but deeds are mighty*.
 6. The children *came because they wanted to see us*.

499. In each sentence above it may be seen that the two italicized parts express ideas that are related, and that the word in black type expresses this relation and joins the two parts. Such words are **conjunctions**.

500. *A Conjunction is the part of speech whose only office is to express relation. Or, a Conjunction is the part of speech whose only office is to connect sentences or parts of sentences.*

501. In the first five sentences above, the conjunctions connect coördinate parts; in the last sentence, the part on the right explains, or is subordinate to, the part on the left.

(a) The conjunction is not the only *connective*. Relative pronouns and conjunctive adverbs are connectives, but they have also a modifying use; the conjunction has no modifying force in the sentence.

(b) The conjunction, like the preposition, is a *relation word*, because it always indicates the relation that the parts connected bear to each other.

(c) The verb also is a relation word; it is always a *connective*. But the verb, unlike both the preposition and the conjunction, not only *expresses* the relation but *affirms* it if it is a finite verb, or *assumes* it if it is an infinitive or a participle.

(d) The conjunction is like the preposition and unlike the verb in being unable to *affirm* or *assume* the relation; but it is unlike the preposition in having no *governing power over substantives*.

(e) From all these notes, the definition of a conjunction will clearly appear, — *that part of speech whose only office is to express relation*.

502. A conjunction may join : —

(1) **Two independent sentences**; as, "*Young heads are giddy, and young hearts are warm.*"

(2) **Two dependent sentences**; as, "*The child is not happy, because its father is a drunkard and its mother is dead.*"

(3) **Two words**; as, "*Mary and Alice are kind and obedient.*"

(4) **Two phrases**; as, "*The boy ran out of the house and into the corn-field.*" "*We should try to learn all we can and to remember all we learn.*"

(5) **A subordinate sentence and a part of a principal**; as, "*We succeed if we try.*"

CLASSES OF CONJUNCTIONS.

503. Conjunctions may be most conveniently classified upon two different bases, — **use** and **meaning**.

504. **As to use**, conjunctions are either **coördinate** or **subordinate**.

505. *A Coördinate Conjunction is one that joins elements having the same grammatical construction.*

506. *A Subordinate Conjunction is one that joins a subordinate sentence to some part of the principal.*

(a) *The one thing of importance is to be able to determine in every instance whether the conjunction is coördinate or subordinate.*

(b) A coördinate conjunction may join two words, two phrases, or two sentences; as, "*We saw Samuel and Peter.*" "*She went to Philadelphia and to Brooklyn.*" "*Mary rode but Philip walked.*"

(c) A subordinate conjunction always joins a subordinate sentence to a part of the principal; as, "*He came to the front because he wanted to hear.*" "*He was silent for he knew not what to say.*" "*She was so slow that we missed the train.*"

507. **As to meaning**, conjunctions are : —

508. **Copulative**, denoting addition; as, *and, also, likewise.*

"*John will work and I shall help him.*"

509. **Adversative**, or **Disjunctive**, denoting opposition; as, *but, nevertheless, whereas.*

"*We went but they did not go.*"

510. **Correlative**, *those used in pairs ; as, both . . . and, either . . . or, neither . . . nor, whether . . . or.*

"Both the child and its mother were there."

511. **Alternative**, *those used to denote one of two alternatives ; as, or, nor.*

"George or his brother will help you."

512. **Causal**, *one introducing a causal clause ; as, because, since, for.*

"He came because he wanted to see me."

513. **Conditional**, *one introducing a conditional clause ; as, if.*

"I shall pay him if he insists upon it."

(a) *And, that, for*, and some other conjunctions are often used merely as introductory words, without any connecting power ; as, "*And it came to pass.*" "*That he did it is doubted.*" "*I believe that he did it.*" "*For what shall it profit a man ?*" Such words should be parsed as introductory expletives, according to Rule XVIII. Or, if it is thought preferable, *and* and *for* may sometimes be parsed as joining what they introduce to some preceding sentence or word.

(b) For convenience, such correlative words as *either . . . or, neither . . . nor, both . . . and*, are commonly parsed as *correlative conjunctions* ; but in reality the words *either, neither*, and *both*, are only expletives, having no force in the sentence but to introduce the parts that are joined by the following *or, nor*, and *and*.

(c) Conjunctions introducing clauses that express *cause, conclusion, or effect* are sometimes called *illative conjunctions* ; as, "*Learn of me, for I am meek and lowly in heart.*" "*I think, therefore I am.*" "*He was honest, hence he was trusted.*"

(d) In studying or teaching the conjunction, keep in mind that the two things absolutely indispensable are : (1) *What does it connect ?*
(2) *Is it coordinate or subordinate ?*

514. Parsing of Conjunctions.

- | | | |
|-------------|------------------|----------|
| 1. Species. | 3. Sub-class. | 5. Rule. |
| 2. Class. | 4. Construction. | |

COORDINATE.

- (1) Oxygen and hydrogen are gases. (*Words.*)
(2) He strove with all his powers and to a noble end. (*Phrases.*)

- (3) You may walk into the garden *but* you must not pluck the flowers.
(*Sentences.*)
- (4) Plato was *both* a philosopher *and* a poet. (*Correlative.*)

SUBORDINATE.

- (5) His friends trusted him *because* he was honorable.
- (6) *Although* he tries he always fails.

(1) *And*, conj., cop. ; it connects the two nouns, *oxygen* and *hydrogen*, R. XII.

(2) *And*, conj., coörr., cop. ; it connects the two phrases, *with all his powers* and *to a noble end*, R. XII.

(3) *But*, conj., coörr., disj. ; it connects the two sentences, *you may walk into the garden* and *you must not pluck the flowers*, R. XII.

(4) *Both . . . and* are conj., coörr., correl., *both* introduces, and *and* connects, the two noun phrases, *a philosopher* and *a poet*, R. XII.

Or better,

Both . . . and are correlative words ; *both* is an expletive introducing, and *and* is a coörr. cop. conjunction connecting the two noun phrases *a philosopher* and *a poet*, R. XII. and Article 513 (b).

(5) *Because*, conj., subor., causal ; it connects the clause, *he was honorable*, to the verb, *trusted*, R. XII.

(6) *Although*, conj., subor., disj. ; it connects the clause, *he tries*, to the verb, *fails*, R. XII.

(a) Some prefer, and with reason, to consider such sentences as the last compound, and call *although* a coördinate conjunction.

(b) In parsing, require the parts connected to be definitely classified as is done above. That is, say they are nouns, phrases, verbs, etc.

515. Selections for Parsing.

- A. (1) Carthage *and* Rome were rival powers.
(2) She came, *but* he remained at home.
(3) We all must work *or* starve.
(4) I will work *if* he will pay me.
(5) He gave me *both* advice *and* money.
(6) Out of the yard *and* up the street he rushed.
(7) We must *either* hasten our march *or* return by night.
(8) *Though* he slay me, yet will I trust him.
- B. (1) *And* now let us proceed.
(2) *That* you were mistaken is evident.
(3) Aristides was *both* just *and* wise.
(4) Not truth, *but* falsehood, fears the open day.

- (5) Scrooge went to bed again, *and* thought it over *and* over *and* over. — *Dickens*.
- (6) Men must work *and* women must weep,
Though storms be hidden *and* waters deep. — *Kingsley*.
- (7) *For* none made sweeter melody
Than did the poor blind boy. — *Wordsworth*.
- (8) *Whether* the thing was green *or* blue.
- (9) Men must be taught *as if* you taught them not.
- (10) Gold is more valuable *but* less useful *than* iron.
- (11) He treated me *as if* he believed *that* I was a thief.
- (12) He looks *as if* tired.
- (13) Johnson went to Congress, *while* his children went to the penitentiary *and* to the gallows.
- (14) I believe him, *because* he is truthful.
- (15) He was silent, *for* he knew not what to say.

516. Outline of Conjunctions.

1a. Classes as to Use.

- 1b. *Coördinate*: One that joins elements having the same grammatical construction.
- 2b. *Subordinate*: One that joins a limiting clause to some part of a principal sentence.

2a. Classes as to meaning.

- 1b. *Copulative*: Denoting addition (and, also, likewise).
- 2b. *Adversative*: Denoting opposition (but, nevertheless, whereas).
- 3b. *Correlative*: Used in pairs (both . . . and; either . . . or).
- 4b. *Alternative*: Used to assert one or the other of two alternatives; as, "John *or* James will go."
- 5b. *Causal*: One introducing a causal clause; as, "I shall not go, *because* he went."
- 6b. *Conditional*: One introducing a conditional clause; as, "He came *that* he might learn."

SYNTAX OF CONJUNCTIONS.

517. RULE XII. — *Conjunctions connect words, phrases, and sentences.*

518. A coördinate conjunction may connect —

- (1) **Two independent sentences**: as, "*John went and Mary came.*"
- (2) **Two dependent sentences**; as, "*I shall go if he invites me and they come after me.*"

(3) **Two prepositional phrases** ; as, "*Up the mountain and through the glen*, he takes his silent way."

(4) **Two infinitive phrases** ; as, "He tries *to be honest, and to be industrious*."

(5) **Two participial phrases** ; as, "I saw him *standing on the bank and looking into the water*."

(6) **Two nouns or pronouns**, either with or without modifiers ; as, "*He and I* went." "*The old man and his little girl* came."

(7) **Two verbs**, with or without modifiers ; as, "He *went and returned*." "He *bought a book and read it through*."

(8) **Two adjectives** ; as, "The man is *wise and great*."

(9) **Two adverbs** ; as, "*Slowly and silently* came the night."

519. A subordinate conjunction always joins a *subordinate sentence* to some *part* of the principal. It may join its subordinate sentence to —

(1) **A verb** ; as, "He *learns because he studies diligently*."

(2) **An adjective** ; as, "His conduct *was such that he was dismissed*."

(3) **An adverb** ; as, "He *was so slow that they all left him*."

(a) It has been stated by some authors that the parts connected by coördinate conjunctions must be of the same class ; but this rule is too strict for writers and speakers to follow. A prepositional phrase is often joined to an adjective or an adverb ; as, "I cannot but think its application somewhat *constrained and out of place*." The rule should be : *The parts connected must be in the same grammatical construction* ; thus if one part is an adjective, the other part must either be an adjective, or some expression used as an adjective ; and if one part is a noun, the object of a certain verb, the other part must be used as the object of the same verb. Generally, verbs joined by coördinate connectives should have the same mode and tense.

(b) The subordinate conjunction *although* is sometimes said to join a participle to the noun it modifies ; but the ellipsis must always be supplied, as, "The man, *although [he was] running rapidly*, played the piece perfectly."

(c) The word *that* is not a connective when it introduces a *substantive clause* ; *subjective, objective, predicative, or appositive* element ; as, "*That the stars are suns*, is the belief of astronomers." "Astronomers believe *that the stars are suns*." "The astronomer's belief is, *that the stars are suns*." "The belief *that the stars are suns* is held by astronomers."

(d) The conjunction *than* sometimes follows the words *else*, *other*, and *rather*, but it nearly always joins a *subordinate sentence* to an *adjective* or an *adverb* in the *comparative degree*; as, "He is better *than* I am." "He walks faster *than* she does."

(e) When *than* introduces a subordinate sentence, limiting two words, care should be taken that they both be in the comparative degree; as, "He is older and wiser *than* I." Do not say, "He is as old and wiser *than* I."

(f) It is claimed by good grammarians that the coördinate conjunction always joins two sentences.

(g) The word *or* has two uses: (1) To come between two alternatives; as, "A king *or* queen always rules in England;" (2) to precede an explanatory term; as, "A sovereign, *or* supreme governor, always rules in England."

(h) When a series of words in the same construction is used, the connective is placed only before the last; as, "We saw John, James, Mary, *and* Peter."

(i) The conjunction *and* may give to the parts connected a *collective signification*; as, "Paul and Peter (together) weigh six hundred pounds." Or it may give them a *distributive signification*; as, "Paul and Peter (each) weigh coal." As sentences the two have the same disposition. Each is a partial compound sentence. Or, as some prefer to call it, a simple sentence with a compound subject.

(j) *Neither* and *either* should always introduce parts that are connected by the corresponding *nor* and *or*; as, "*Neither* he *nor* his friends were present." "It *neither* improves the understanding, *nor* delights the heart." "He *neither* improves his farm *nor* his mind," should be, "He improves *neither* his farm *nor* his mind." Many good writers are entirely too careless with their correlatives; but the student of composition must remember that whatever excellence such writers possess must not be attributed to their carelessness.

520. Parse all the conjunctions. Rewrite incorrect sentences, making the necessary changes.

- (1) I shall visit him this summer, because he desires it.
- (2) That we may fully understand the subject, let us consider the following propositions.
- (3) Neither flattery nor threats could move him.
- (4) Our judgments should neither be hasty nor unjust.
- (5) John the Baptist came, eating neither bread nor drinking wine.
- (6) Tones are different, both from emphasis and pauses.
- (7) He is taller, but not so old as his brother.

(8) He was as eloquent, and perhaps even more eloquent than Webster.

(9) It is as good, or better, than mine.

(10) We may, and ought to do good to others.

(11) This is consistent neither with logic, nor history.

(12) There is no one so wise but he can learn something more.

(13) I do not know whether he is in Boston, or New York.

(14) Read distinctly, that you may be understood.

(15) He is honest, but his judgment is poor.

(16) If you are going, then he will go.

(17) No one will dispute the fact that Edison is a great inventor.

(18) The children play in the yard and in the street.

(19) I remained that I might have company, but they have gone.

(20) I shall not go unless I am invited.

(21) Though he were dead, yet shall he live.

521. Review of Conjunctions.

(1) Define a conjunction. Illustrate. (2) What other connective words can you name? Illustrate, showing the connective force of each. (3) How does the conjunction differ from all other connective words? (4) What parts may a conjunction join? (5) Name, define, and illustrate the two classes of conjunctions as to use. (6) Illustrate what parts each may connect. (7) Discuss (a) Correlative conjunctions, (b) Introductory conjunctions. (8) What do you consider of most importance in the study of the conjunction?

THE INTERJECTION.

522. "*O, pshaw*, he is too emotional, but *alas*, I am like him!"

The italicized words above express isolated feelings that come in between ideas. They are called **interjections**.

523. *An Interjection is an exclamatory word used to express an isolated feeling that comes in between thoughts or ideas.*

(a) The word *interjection* means *thrown between*. That is, the emotion is thrown in between thoughts or ideas, and the word that expresses it is thrown in between sentences or parts of sentences.

(b) Interjections have no classes and no properties.

(c) To parse an interjection, simply name its part of speech, referring to Rule XVII.

SYNTAX OF INTERJECTIONS.

524. RULE XVII. — *An interjection does not depend for grammatical construction upon any other word.*

525. Interjections might be classified according to the nature of the feelings they express, into : —

- (1) Joy : *igh, hey, io.*
- (2) Sorrow : *oh, ah, hoo, alas, alack, lackaday, welladay, or welaway.*
- (3) Wonder : *heigh, ha, strange, indeed.*
- (4) Wish, earnest, or address : *O* (generally followed by a noun).
- (5) Praise : *well-done, good, bravo.*
- (6) Surprise with disapproval : *whew, hoity-toity, hoida, zounds, what.*
- (7) Pain, or fear : *oh, ooh, ah, eh, O dear.*
- (8) Contempt : *fudge, pugh, poh, pshaw, pish, tush, tut, humph.*
- (9) Aversion : *foh, faugh, fle, fy, foy.*
- (10) Expulsion : *out, off, shoo, whew, begone, avaunt, aroynt.*
- (11) Desire for attention : *ho, soho, what-ho, hollo, holla hallo, halloo, boy, ahoy.*

- (12) Exultation : *ah, aha, huzza, hey, heyday, hurrah.*
 - (13) Mirth : *ha-ha-ha, he-he-he, te-hee-he.*
 - (14) Salutation : *welcome, hail, all-hail.*
 - (15) Call for attention : *ho, lo, la, law, look, see, behold, hark.*
 - (16) Call for silence : *hush, hist, whist, 'st, aw, mum.*
 - (17) Dread, or horror : *oh, ah, hah, what.*
 - (18) Languor, or weariness : *heigh-ho, heigh-ho-hum.*
 - (19) Desire for stop : *hold, soft, avast, whoa.*
 - (20) Feeling caused by the thought of parting : *farewell, adieu, good by, good day, good night.*
 - (21) Feeling that follows a discovery : *oho, aha, ay ay.*
 - (22) Feeling that prompts interrogation : *eh ? ha ? hey ?*
- (a) *Do not use interjections in the absence of corresponding emotions. Do not allow the course of thought to be too frequently interrupted by emotions.*

INFINITIVES AND PARTICIPLES.

526. In other places it has been insisted that the proper way to teach the subject of grammar is not to neglect either practical or technical grammar, but to teach them both together. Every lesson should contain some of the principles of grammar, and also their application to language. Here I intend to give some lessons in technical grammar. I shall try to present, so that it will be clear to young teachers, what is regarded as perhaps the most difficult subject connected with this branch; that is, *Infinitives and Participles*.

527. Grammar, the Most Difficult Study. — I think perhaps it is safe to say that there is no other branch taught in the common schools which is so much misconceived by the teacher as well as the pupils. Many teachers seem to have the idea that in grammar one may hold almost any opinion, or indeed no opinion, and still be right. A few years ago a superintendent said to me, "I despise grammar; there is no certainty about it — one book will say one thing and another book will contradict it; this, of course, confuses the class and the teacher never knows what to do." Well, this is indeed a sad state of affairs, if it is a reality, and I am sure that to a very great extent it is. It is true that one book will say one thing and another book another. It is true, also, that this will confuse the pupils, and, pity though it is, it is true also that in a majority of cases the teacher himself does not know what to do. But the question remains — Is this the fault of the subject, of the books, or of the teachers? I hold that grammar is a science as

exact as any taught in our schools, with the possible exception of mathematics ; and that in almost every case, if the teacher understands his business, he may know what to do, regardless of the fact that the books differ. Well, how may he know this, is the question of importance to all that are in the condition of our superintendent. Let me tell you. First, let it be understood that language is not constructed according to anybody's text-book on grammar. On the contrary, everybody's text-book on grammar should have been constructed according to the language. This is true in all science. The earth was not formed according to anybody's text-book on geology, but all the text-books on geology have been written to explain the construction of the earth, as any one that examines it may find it to be. Now, suppose one geology says one thing and another another, are the pupils to be confused and the teacher not to know what to do? No ; on the contrary, they are to go to the earth itself and find for themselves its construction. Suppose they find it to be different from the statements of both their books or all their books on geology, which is right, the earth or the text-books? It is not necessary to answer this question. Now, this same scientific method of investigating a subject may be applied in teaching grammar as successfully as in any other branch. The teacher, however, must be sufficiently familiar with language and literature in general to know what is and what is not good usage ; then, if he finds text-books differing with reference to the use of any part of speech, all he has to do is to step to the blackboard and write there a sentence containing that part of speech and let the class see for themselves which of the text-books agree with the language. Suppose that both the text-books or all the text-books have it one way and the language another, which is right? You may be sure it is the language. But

do not understand me to say that the teacher should dispense with the text-book. This, I think, would be very foolish ; for any one that has written a text-book on a subject will most likely have a better understanding of it than the ordinary teacher ; but what I mean is this, that by continually comparing the statements of the text-book with the usages of our best writers and speakers, the teacher will soon be able to determine what text-book is most nearly in accordance with the language, and that is the one that he should adopt for his class. Teachers generally may not be aware of the fact, but it is a fact nevertheless, that most books on geology have been written upon other books on geology rather than upon the earth. This is true with text-books in general, and particularly is it true with text-books on English grammar. Ninety-nine one-hundredths of them have been written upon other grammars rather than upon the English sentence. But the ideal text-book on this subject will be the one that has for its subject-matter the English sentence, as spoken and written by great masters in literature. So far as construction or use of words is concerned, the English language is now pretty well settled, and there is no necessity for very much disagreement in our text-books. Nor is there need for confusion for the pupil or perplexity on the part of the teacher, or superintendent, if he will keep the scientific method in view, that is, verify the statement of the text-book by referring to usage in the language, always remembering that, when there is a difference, the best text-book must give up in favor of language. Now let us apply this scientific method to the investigation of infinitives and participles.

528. A Knowledge of Other Languages not Necessary to an Understanding of English. — Let me make another preliminary statement just here. Some text-books and teachers

are responsible for the misunderstanding, that for the pupil to understand English infinitives and participles he must understand also the infinitives and participles as they were used in the Greek, the Latin, the Hebrew, etc. Nothing could be more absurd. English is what it is, and we have it before us, so that any one willing to look at it may see what it is, and also he may know that it will be what it is, regardless of the nature of those languages from which our English words have been taken, and after which much of our English syntax has been modelled. Even some of the new text-books on grammar just now appearing use the Latin names for the cases, for the tenses of verbs, etc. The teacher should throw such books away; they are as much behind the times as would be a treatise on anthropology that would classify men by giving them the names formerly applied to our four-footed ancestors. This practice of continually referring to foreign languages in teaching English is in most cases an artifice on the part of the teacher or writer to conceal his ignorance of English itself. Suppose that the foreign language agrees in its syntax with the English, we must understand the English syntax before we can note the agreement; and after we understand it, what light will it throw on our English to go back to the foreign language? Suppose, on the other hand, the English syntax differs from the foreign; then, again, a knowledge of the foreign will throw no light on the syntax of the English. So that the thing for the teacher of English to learn is that he is teaching English, not Latin, Greek, German, or French, or anything else.

529. What Part of Speech. — Let us determine to what part of speech the infinitive and the participle belong. Or must they be made to constitute a new part of speech? Here, it is true, the authorities are not agreed; but let us

follow our scientific method, and we shall be able to determine their part of speech. Let us follow the method the scientist would adopt if he should come upon an animal that he was not altogether familiar with. What must he do? Evidently he must class it with some of the animals he is already familiar with, or else he must make a new class for it. If it differs materially from all others, he must do the latter; if not, the former. Now, suppose he decides to class it with the animals he knows; here the question arises, Into which class shall he put it? *Into the class that it most nearly resembles.*

530. The Scientific Method. — We must do the same with infinitives and participles. But scientists themselves could differ as to the proper class for this new animal; some might declare it to be a wolf, others a fox, and still others possibly a bear. Now what is to be done? *Bring in the animal itself and let it testify.* Suppose that it be found to agree in every essential characteristic and every phase of its nature with bears, and suppose that, notwithstanding this, a committee of scientists high in authority persist in calling it a wolf; what are we to do? I think all sensible people would take the side of the bear.

531. The Final Test. — Now this is about our condition with respect to infinitives and participles. Most grammarians, especially those that have been considered high authority, have declared that infinitives and participles are not verbs. Some, it is true, have claimed that they should be classed under that part of speech. What is the final test? This is it: *Be sure that we understand the nature of the verb, and then make a careful examination of infinitives and participles as they are found in the language of the best English speakers and writers, and note whether they are found to agree with verbs or to differ from them.*

532. Finite Verbs do not always Assert. — Now let us pro-

ceed to make the comparison. One of the strongest objections that has ever been urged against calling infinitives and participles verbs is, that they only *assume* action, being, or state, while it is the office of verbs to *assert*; but this objection we may easily see is not well founded, for, while it is true that infinitives and participles always assume, it is true also that finite verbs do not always assert. For instance, take the following sentences: "When you *come* we will talk it over;" "I do not believe that he *is* a thief." It may easily be seen that the verbs in the subordinate sentences, *come* and *is*, do not make *assertions*, they only *assume*; yet there never has been a grammarian that for this or any other reason would deny that they are verbs. In none of our subordinate sentences can the finite verbs properly be said to *assert*, they only *assume*; still we all regard them as verbs.

533. They have the Classes of Verbs—Attributive and Copulative.—It is easy to observe, also, that the different classes commonly attributed to verbs apply as well to infinitives and participles. First, we say that all verbs are either *attributive* or *copulative*, as, in the sentence, "The man *farm*," we say the finite verb *farm* is attributive because it does not require any other word to express the attribute it asserts of its subject; and in the sentences, "The man *is* a farmer," and "The man *is* well," we say the verbs are copulative because they only couple to their subjects other words that express attributes. In the following sentences we may see the same distinction with reference to infinitives. For instance, in "We want the man *to farm*," *to farm* is attributive, and in "We want the man *to be* a farmer," and "We want the man *to be* well," the infinitives are clearly copulative. It is seen from these sentences, also, that the infinitive copula, like the finite copula, may be completed by a predicate noun or

a predicate adjective. *Show that participles have the same uses.*

534. Transitive and Intransitive.—We say that all finite verbs are either *transitive* or *intransitive*. Thus, in the sentences, “John *plows* the field,” and “The boy *runs*,” the verb *plow* is transitive, because it represents the action of a doer as terminating upon a receiver; and *runs* is intransitive because it represents the action as pertaining wholly to the doer. The same is true of the following infinitives: “We want John *to plow* the field,” and “We want the boy *to run*.” *To plow* is clearly transitive, everybody would parse the noun *field* as its object; and *to run* is as clearly intransitive. So far as I have yet been able to learn, no one has ever attributed the classes, *Copulative* and *Attributive*, *Transitive* and *Intransitive*, to any other part of speech than verbs. *Show that participles may be used like “to plow” and “to run.”*

535. Regular and Irregular.—The same is true with the classes, *Regular* and *Irregular*. Every regular verb, like *plow*, has its infinitive and its participle, *to plow*, and *plowing*; also every irregular verb like *see* has its corresponding infinitive and participle, *to see*, and *seeing*.

536. May express Action, Being, or State.—We must observe, too, that infinitives and participles, like the finite verb, may express *action*, as, *to run*, *running*; *being*, as, *to be*, *being*, or *state*, as, *to stand*, *standing*; although as previously stated they can only *assume*, not *assert*, this action, being, or state.

537. May be modified by Adverbial Elements.—It may be seen also that infinitives and participles, like finite verbs, may be modified by adverbial elements; as, “Boys like to lie *in the shade when the sun is hot*.” “Having come *from the country*, he enjoyed the city.”

538. They have the Properties of Verbs—Voice.—We find

also that infinitives and participles have the same properties, *voice*, *mode*, and *tense*, that are always given to finite verbs. For illustration, take the sentences, "John *killed* a snake," and "A snake *was killed* by John." We say that the verbs have *voice* because they are used so that in one sentence the verb makes its subject represent the *doer*, and in the other the *receiver*. Now, for the same reason, we may say that the infinitives in the following sentences have *voice*: "We want John *to kill* the snake," and "We want the snake *to be killed* by John." "The boy *killing* the snake is my brother," and "The snake *being killed* by the boy is a copperhead."

539. Mode. — It is clear, also, that infinitives and participles have *mode*. Indeed, no other verbs can lay such undisputed claim to *mode*, as may be seen from the following sentences: "Go" (imperative), "I go" (indicative), "I may go" (potential), "If I may go" (subjunctive). The *mode* of the finite verb *go* depends upon its relation to the other words in a sentence; but the infinitive and participle never leave us in doubt as to their *mode*. As soon as we see them, we know that their peculiar manner of expression is by *assuming*, not by *asserting*. Thus, in the sentences, "I want the man *to go*," and "The man *having gone* we did not see him," *to go* and *having gone* show at once, without considering other words in the sentence, that they *assume* the action.

540. Tense. — Now, do infinitives and participles have *tense*? First, let us find out why finite verbs have *tense*. Finite verbs have *tense* because they can be used so as to mark different periods of time. But infinitives and participles can mark different periods of time. Thus, in the sentence, "I believe the man *to be* honest," the thought is, that the man *is* honest *now*; and in the sentence, "I believe the man *to have been* honest," the thought is, that he

was honest some time in the past. So it is clear that these words can mark two distinct periods in time; they, therefore, have the two tenses called *Present* and *Present Perfect*.

541. Time expressed by the Tenses.—A very important and very practical question connected with the tenses of infinitives and participles is this: "What is the time expressed by each of the tenses?" The only statement that is commonly found in the grammars is, that "the time expressed by infinitives and participles depends upon that expressed by the finite verb in the same sentence."

In the first place, this statement is not always true. The time expressed by the infinitive and the participle often has no reference whatever to that of the finite verb in the same sentence, as may be seen from the following:—

The horse *to be sold*, *was* once valuable.

The horse *to be sold*, *is* now valuable.

The horse *to be sold*, *will* sometime *be* valuable.

The man *having* the work done, *was* a congressman.

The man *having* the work done, *is* a congressman.

The man *having* the work done, *will be* a congressman.

In the next place, the statement is not sufficiently definite to give any information even when it is true. When the time of the infinitive and participle does depend upon that of the finite verb, the following rules will be found to hold without exception. **First**,—*The time of the present infinitive and present participle is present with reference to that of the finite verb.* Thus:—

He *came* (past) to the front *to hear* (past) the speaker.

He *comes* (now) to the front *to hear* (now) the speaker.

He *will come* (future) to the front *to hear* (future) the speaker.

He *came* (past) *stumbling* (past).

He *comes* (present) *stumbling* (present).

He *will come* (future) *stumbling* (future).

From the sentences given above we see that the present infinitive and present participle may express *past time*, *present time*, or *future time*, but the rule is also seen to be true, "that their time is present with reference to that of the finite verb." **Second.** — *The time expressed by the perfect infinitive and perfect participle is always previous to that of the finite verb in the same sentence.*

For illustration : —

He *believes* (now) me *to have been* mistaken (past).

He *believed* (yesterday) me *to have been* mistaken (the day before).

He *will believe* (future) me *to have been* mistaken (previously).

The same may be observed to be true of participles:—

Having prepared his lesson (previously) he *recites* it (now).

Having prepared his lesson (previously) he *recited* it (yesterday).

Having prepared his lesson (previously) he *will recite* it (future).

It will be seen that the perfect infinitive and participle, like the present, may express either *present*, *past*, or *future time*, but as the rule says, "The time expressed by the perfect infinitive and perfect participle is previous to that of the finite verb."

542. The Subject of an Infinitive. — I have already shown that infinitives and participles, as well as finite verbs, may, when transitive, govern objects, as in the following sentences : "I want him to learn *grammar*." "They want me to believe *him*." "Having seen *him* we came home." I now wish to explain that they have subjects also. Grammarians all tell us that finite verbs must have subjects, because we cannot assert action without asserting it of some actor ; but, as a trial will convince us, we find it equally difficult *to assume* action without assuming it of some actor. So we have the same reason for saying that infinitives and participles must have subjects. It is true that some grammarians deny that infinitives have subjects.

For instance, in such sentences as, "For him to act so is not honorable," they have called *him* the object of the preposition *for*. But *for* is not a preposition in this sentence, for it has no antecedent term of relation. It is no more a preposition than is the word *that* in the sentence, "*That* he should act so is not honorable." Both are merely introductory expletives, having no other use than to introduce their sentences. But suppose those grammarians still insist that *for* is a preposition, and say that its antecedent is *honorable*, making the sentence read, "To act so is not honorable for him," the question still remains, Who is to do the acting? Then, if we express all of our thought we must say, "For him to act so is not honorable for him." Now, certainly, if this last *him* supplied has any grammatical construction, it must be the subject of the infinitive *to act*. In such sentences as the following, "We believe *him* to be truthful," and "We believe *him* to be a liar," *him* should be parsed as the subject of the infinitive, not the object of the transitive verb *believe*, for sentences should always be parsed in accordance with their meaning. Now some authorities, in trying to show us that the infinitive does not have a subject, say, for instance, that if we believe *him to be truthful*, we therefore believe *him*; so it is in accordance with the meaning of the sentence to parse *him* as the object of *believe*. But that is too narrow a view, for, although this disposition seems to be consistent in this sentence, it will not do in the next sentence, "We believe *him to be a liar*;" for in this sentence, to parse *him* as the object of *believe* gives the sentence a meaning contrary to the one intended; and evidently the two sentences are grammatically alike. The parsing of one should be the parsing of the other. *Him* is the subject of the *infinitive*, not the object of *believe*.

543. In what Case?—Another question of importance, *What is the case of the subject of the infinitive?* We see from all the foregoing sentences that the case of the infinitive is objective; but it is true that the same word may be the subject both of a finite verb and also of an infinitive. When it is, its case is always determined by the finite verb, and is therefore nominative. When it is the subject of an infinitive only, it is always objective. So the following is the rule that determines the case of the subject of an infinitive: *When the subject of an infinitive does not depend upon any other word it is in the objective case.*

544. Why?—Now, it is instructive to ask also, *Why is the subject of an infinitive in the objective case?* Some grammarians, who admit that the infinitive has a subject, and that the subject is in the objective case, still insist that it is objective, not because it is the subject of the infinitive, but because of the influence of a preceding transitive verb. This, also, I hope to show is incorrect. Take, for instance, the sentence given above, “We believe him to be a liar.” Now, if the word *him* does not depend for its case upon the infinitive *to be*, and is governed by the preceding transitive verb, its case will remain the same, regardless of any change the infinitive undergoes, so long as the finite verb remains the same. But let us change the infinitive to a finite verb, leaving the transitive verb *believe* the same, and the sentence will read, “We believe *he* is a liar.” Here the words *he* and *him* stand in precisely the same relation to the preceding transitive verb *believe*, for this verb has not been changed. The change in case must therefore depend upon the change that *is* made in the sentence; that is, when we change the infinitive to a finite verb, the objective *him* changes to the nominative *he*. So we see the subject of an infinitive is

in the objective case, for the same reason that the subject of a finite verb is in the nominative case ; that is, *the subject of a finite verb is in the nominative case, because it is the subject of a finite verb ; and the subject of an infinitive is in the objective case, because it is the subject of the infinitive.* In other words, the subject of a finite verb is in the nominative case and the subject of an infinitive is in the objective, *because the language is so constructed.*

545. True in Other Languages.— We must not suppose that this *objective subject* is a construction peculiar to the English language ; it is just as common and much more noticeable, on account of their extended inflection, in Latin and Greek, and it is so understood and disposed of by grammarians of those languages.

“The subject of an infinitive is in the accusative” (objective).— *Allen and Greenough’s Latin Grammar*, § 240 (f).

“The subject of the infinitive mood is put in the accusative.”— *Andrew and Stoddard’s Latin Grammar*, § 239.

“The subject of an infinitive is in the accusative ; as, *Legousi tous andras apelthei*, ‘They say that the men went away.’”— *Goodwin’s Greek Grammar*.

“The infinitive mood in a dependent clause has its subject in the accusative.”— *Bullion’s Greek Grammar*. Art. 729 ; and in Art. 730 he says, “When the subject of an infinitive is the same with the subject of the preceding verb, it is put in the same case.”

“The subject of the infinitive is put in the accusative.”— *Crosby’s Greek Grammar*.

“When the infinitive has a subject of its own, it is in the accusative. When, however, the subject of the infinitive is not different from the principal subject of the sentence, it is not expressed.”— *Kuhner’s Greek Grammar*.

So we see that the subject of an infinitive is governed by the rule given above. *The subject of an infinitive is in the objective case when it is not dependent upon another word.*

Examples of infinitives having subjects different from those of the finite verb : —

We believe *him* to be mistaken.

She wants *them* to leave.

He is the man *whom* you thought to be me.

Whom do you want to have your library ?

Examples of infinitives whose subjects are the same as those of the finite verb : —

He does not intend to be mistaken.

She wants to leave.

He is the man *who* was thought to be L.

Who wants to have your library ?

The subject of an infinitive may be : —

- (1) A **noun** ; as, " We want *Paul* to sing for us."
- (2) A **pronoun** ; as, " We want *him* to sing for us."
- (3) A **participle** ; as, "He thinks *cheating* me to be beating me."
- (4) Another **infinitive** ; as, "He thinks *to cheat* to be to rob."
- (5) A **clause** ; as, "He thinks *that I say nothing about it* to be evidence that I know nothing."

546. The Subject of a Participle. — The participle, like the infinitive, may have for its subject a noun or pronoun that depends upon some other word in the sentence, or a noun or pronoun that does not depend upon any other word.

Thus the subject of a participle may be also : —

- (1) The **subject of a finite verb** ; as, " *Alice* blushing answered yes."
- (2) The **object of a transitive verb** ; as, "We saw *John* stealing watermelons."
- (3) The **complement of a copulative verb** ; as, "He was a *man* admired by everybody."
- (4) The **object of a preposition** ; as, "Speak to the *girl* standing by the stove."
- (5) **In apposition** ; as "Johnson, the *gentleman* writing on the black-board, is a very fine penman." "He wrote to Jordan, the *scientist* having charge of the expedition."

In the preceding sentences the words *Alice*, *John*, *man*, *girl*, *gentleman*, and *scientist*, the subjects of participles, being also dependent upon other words, *are governed by those other words and not by the participles*. Thus *Alice* is the nominative case, because it is the subject of *answered*. *John* is objective case, because it is the object of *saw*, etc. So we may say that *when the subject of a participle depends upon any other word in the sentence, its case is governed by that other word, not by the participle*. But in the following sentences the subjects of the participles do not depend upon any other word : —

- (1) *Mary's* leaving surprised everybody.
- (2) I understand *your* quibbling with him.
- (3) We were not surprised at *his* accepting your proposition.
- (4) *Brown* having come in, we conversed with him.
- (5) Our *leader* having been killed, we abandoned the expedition.

In the first three of these sentences, it will be observed, the participles are used as nouns in dependent constructions. Thus, *leaving* is the subject of the verb *surprised*, *quibbling* is the object of the verb *understand*, *accepting* is the object of the preposition *at*. And it will be observed also that the subject of each participle is in the possessive case. But in the last two sentences, the participles, *having come* and *having been killed*, have no connection with any part of the sentence except their subjects, and the subjects, *Brown* and *leader*, are the nominative absolute case. So we may sum this all up in the following rule : *When the subject of a participle does not depend upon any other word in the sentence, it is in the possessive case or nominative absolute : possessive when the participle is used as a noun in a dependent construction, and absolute when the participle, together with its subject, is used independently*.

(a) This rule is not found, so far as I know, in any other book, but the student will find it verified by all correct sentences in which are found subjects of participles.

547. Case of the Complement of an Infinitive Copula. —
We have seen that the infinitive has a subject, which is commonly in the objective case, and that it may, like finite verbs, be copulative or attributive. Now let us inquire what is the case of the complement of the copulative infinitive. In the sentence, "We thought John would be a *farmer*," *farmer* is the complement of the copulative verb *would be*, and is in the nominative case. Now let us abridge the subordinate sentence into one whose verb is an infinitive, and it will read, "We thought John to be a *farmer*." Now what is the case of *farmer*? Its form does not tell us, neither does the form of the word *John* tell us its case; but both may be seen to be objective by supplying pronouns in their stead. Then we should have a sentence like the following: "We thought *him* to be *her*." "She thought *them* to be *us*." "They thought *her* to be *me*." So we see that *the complement of an infinitive copula is in the same case as its subject*; that is, generally objective. When, however, the subject of the infinitive is nominative its complement is also nominative; as, "I was thought to be *she*," not *her*. So we have the following rule for the complement of all copulative verbs: *The complement of a copulative verb is in the same case as its subject*. There is but one exception to this rule.

548. Case of the Complement of a Copulative Participle. —
We have previously referred to Rule VI, in which it is stated that the complement of a copulative verb is in the same case as its subject. We have stated also that to this rule there is one exception. Here we must notice the application of that rule to the participle, in which the exception will appear. In the sentence, "He being a scholar, we asked his opinion," *he*, the subject of the participle, is in the nominative absolute case, and *scholar*, the complement, is in the same case. The form would be the

same for the nominative as for the nominative absolute, and since no reason appears for supposing this to be an exception to the general rule stated above, *scholar* should be parsed as a noun in the nominative absolute case. But in the sentence, "*His being a scholar has been questioned,*" *his*, the subject of the participle *being*, is clearly in the possessive case. *Scholar*, the complement, is not in the possessive case, but in the nominative. This then is the exception to the rule previously given. So the rule, stated in full, would be given as on page 234.

549. Double Nature of Infinitives and Participles—Their Construction.—So from all this it seems we ought to agree that infinitives and participles are verbs; but we must now understand that in addition to their verbal nature they are used in sentences also as *nouns*, *adjectives*, and *adverbs*. So they have a double nature. We must not understand that an infinitive or participle is used as all these parts of speech at the same time. *It always performs the office of a verb*; and then, in addition to that, it has the force also of one or the other, *a noun, an adjective, or an adverb*. Take the sentence, "I like education." We see that *education* is a noun, used as the object of the transitive verb *like*; and in the following sentence, "I like to read," the infinitive *to read* stands in the same relation to the transitive verb *like*, so it is said to have the use or construction of a noun. But some one will say, Why not simply call it a noun, and be done with it? For this reason, that, although it stands in the same relation to the verb as the noun does, yet it also retains its verbal nature, and may be made to govern an object, and to take an adverbial element, as in the sentence, "I like to read *history in the morning*." It may be shown also that when the infinitive has the construction or use of an adverb it retains its verbal nature, as in the sentence, "He came *to*

learn." The infinitive *to learn* in this sentence tells the purpose of his coming, and therefore has the construction of an adverb of purpose. But some one will say, Why not call it an adverb, and be done with it? For the same reason given above; *it retains its verbal nature*—may govern an object, and be modified by an adverbial element, as in the sentence, "He came to learn *grammar without much study.*" This same is true also of an infinitive or participle when it is used as an adjective, as in the sentences: "The time to do your *work with most ease* is the present;" "The lady sending the *message to you* is Martha." Here it is clear that the infinitive has the use of an adjective modifying the noun *time*; but we know also that it is a verb because it takes the object *work* and the adverbial element *with most ease*. Also, the participle *sending* has the construction of an adjective, modifying *lady*; but its verbal force is seen in the object *message* and the adverbial element *to you*. Now for a general statement we may say, *An infinitive or participle has the construction of a noun, when it is used as nouns are used; the construction of an adjective, when it is used as adjectives are used; the construction of an adverb, when it is used as adverbs are used.*

550. Construction of a Noun.—We said above that an infinitive or particle has the construction of a noun, when it is used as nouns are used. The pupil must now recall the different uses of nouns. A noun may be used: *The subject of a finite verb*; as, "The *boy* is pleasant." *The subject of an infinitive*; as, "We thought *John* to be disagreeable." *The complement of a finite copula*; as, "John is a *farmer.*" *The complement of an infinitive copula*; as, "We thought John to be a *farmer.*" *The object of a preposition*; as, "I like all the boys but *Henry.*" *The object of a transitive verb*; "I like the *boy.*" *In apposi-*

tion; as, "Henry, the *man* that came with you, is my brother."

Now infinitives and participles may have the same uses, as may be seen by comparing the following sentences with those immediately preceding:—

The subject of a finite verb; as, "To study grammar is pleasant."
"Studying grammar is pleasant."

The subject of an infinitive; as, "We once thought to study grammar to be disagreeable." "We once thought studying grammar to be disagreeable."

The complement of a finite copula; as, "To study grammar is to learn it." "Studying grammar is learning it."

The complement of an infinitive copula; as, "We know to study grammar to be to understand it." "We know studying grammar to be understanding it."

The object of a preposition; as, "We like it all but to be criticised." "We like it all but being criticised."

The object of a transitive verb; as, "We like to study grammar." "We like studying grammar."

In apposition; as, "To study anything diligently, to give proper attention to it, is to master it." "Studying anything diligently, giving proper attention to it, is mastering it."

551. Construction of an Adjective.—In the sentence, "He gave me a medicine good for all ills," the word *good* is a direct adjective, limiting the noun *medicine*. An infinitive may have the same use, as in the sentence, "He gave me permission to use his tools." As it was *good* medicine, so it was *using* permission. *To use* is therefore an infinitive with the construction of a direct adjective, modifying the noun *permission*. An infinitive may be used also as a predicate adjective, as in the sentences, "The boys are to blame" (blamable), "Gas is to be found (findable) in Indiana." Neither an infinitive nor an active participle can be used as a resultant adjective. When an active participle is so used it loses its verbal force and becomes merely an adjective (see Article 558).

552. Construction of an Adverb.—Whenever an infinitive performs any of the offices of an adverb, it is said to have the construction of an adverb. An infinitive with the construction of an adverb usually limits a verb, as an adverb of purpose; as, “We came *to learn*.” But it may limit an adjective or an adverb to express purpose; as, “Apples are good *to eat*,” “I have studied French enough *to read* it.” In such sentences as, “He is too weak *to stand*,” the infinitive has the construction of an adverb of degree, limiting the adverb *too*. The principal uses of infinitives with the construction of an adverb are, to express:—

Cause: “I grieve *to hear* it.”

Purpose: “I came *to learn*.”

A future event: “He fell *to rise* no more.”

Manner: “Everything went *to suit* me.”

Degree: “He is old enough *to walk*.”

553. How to determine the Construction of an Infinitive or Participle.—It is often difficult to determine what construction the infinitive or participle has. It is always helpful to find what part of speech the word will be that can be made to take the place of the infinitive or participle, when one can be found. Thus, “He likes *to learn*,” is almost like, “He likes *education*.” “Time *to come* is beyond our control,” is the same as, “*Future* time is beyond our control.” “He is skilful in *building* houses,” expresses the same thought as, “He is skilful in *architecture*.” Another means of determining the construction of an infinitive or participle is to expand it into a clause and observe what use the clause performs. Thus, “He desires *me to see you*,” is the same as, “He desires *that I see you*,” in which, *that I see you* is a substantive clause. “He came here *to learn grammar*,” is equivalent to “He came here *that he might learn grammar*,” in which, *that he*

might learn grammar is an adverbial clause. "The boy *sitting on the bench* struck me," is the same as, "The boy *that sits on the bench* struck me," in which, *that sits on the bench* is an adjective clause. But many infinitives and participles will be found whose equivalents it is impossible to express, either in a single word or in a complete subordinate sentence.

554. Not the Infinitive or Participle alone, but its Clause.—When the infinitive or participle stands alone it may be correctly parsed as having the construction of a noun, adjective, or adverb. But when it is used as a part of a phrase or clause, then it is the entire phrase or clause, not the infinitive or participle alone, that has the construction of a noun, adjective, or adverb. Thus we may parse *to learn* in such sentences as, "He wants *to learn*," as an infinitive having the construction of a noun, the object of *wants*. But in such sentences as, "He wants *me to learn grammar*," we should say *to learn* is an infinitive, and the abridged clause in which it is found, *me to learn grammar*, has the construction of a noun, object of *wants*.

555. A Participle becomes a Noun.—Whenever a participle is immediately preceded by the article *the* and followed by the preposition *of* it loses all its verbal force and should then be parsed as a participial noun, as in the following sentences: "The *closing* of the bank caused much alarm." "The dispute was concerning the *opening* of the fair." The same is true of a participle that is limited directly by an adjective. It then becomes a noun; as, "Ordinary *walking* is tiresome." Such constructions must be carefully distinguished from the following, in which the same words retain their power to be modified by adverbial elements and to govern objects, and should therefore be parsed as participles: "*Closing* the bank at this time necessitates *closing* all other forms of

business." "He was made bankrupt by *closing* the bank too soon." "*Opening* a bank here is *opening* many other business enterprises." But since the participles in the sentences immediately preceding sustain also the relations of nouns — subject of a verb, object of a verb, object of a preposition, and complement of a copulative verb, — the complete parsing of each will be *as a participle with the construction of a noun*.

The participle often becomes a noun even without the article or the adjective, as in "*Painting*, music, sculpture, architecture, and literature are the five fine arts." In such cases it is sometimes difficult to distinguish a participle from a mere participial noun, as in (1) "*Painting* is delightful exercise;" and (2) "*Painting* is a fine art." *Painting* in (1) evidently refers to an action, which takes place upon some object, in some place, at some time, in some manner, and by some actor. It is therefore a participle. But *painting* in (2) is simply the *name* of one of the fine arts, not referring to any action, and is therefore only a noun. *A participle always retains the idea of time, and if active and transitive it can be given an object without destroying its force in the sentence.* Thus, the first might be written, "*Painting* pictures in the morning is a delightful exercise," but we would not say, "*Painting* pictures is a fine art;" but rather, "*Painting* pictures is *practising* a fine art." So we see that it changes the meaning of the second to put in an object for *painting*.

556. A Participle becomes a Direct Adjective. — When any word that is commonly a participle is made to limit a noun immediately following it, it then loses its verbal force and becomes merely a *direct participial adjective*; as, "The *driving* winds were irresistible." But in the following sentence the same word should be parsed as a participle, for it performs the verbal offices of taking an adverbial

element and an object: "The winds *driving* everything before them did much damage." But in this sentence, as in all such, the participle performs also the office of an adjective, so that its complete parsing will be *as a participle with the construction of an adjective*.

557. A Participle becomes a Predicate Adjective. — When an active participle performs the office of a predicate adjective it loses its verbal nature; as, "Wealth is *deceiving*." "Time is *fleeting*." "Children are *amusing*." All such as the italicized words should be parsed as *participial predicate adjectives*. It is impossible to give a sentence containing an active participle with the construction of a predicate adjective following a pure copulative verb. Passive participles frequently have the construction of predicate adjectives; as, "He lives there *loved* by everybody."

558. A Participle becomes a Resultant or Factitive Adjective in all such sentences as the following: "His peculiarities made him *amusing*." "Iron's density makes it *deceiving*."

559. The Progressive Form of a Finite Verb is formed with a present active participle together with some form of the verb *to be*; as, "Henry *is plowing* the field." "We *are reciting* our lessons." Be careful to distinguish the progressive form of a finite verb, as in, "He *is pleasing* me," from the copulative and predicate adjective, as in, "Your conduct *is pleasing*." And both of these must be distinguished from the copulative verb followed by a participle with the construction of a predicate noun, as in, "Doing what a man wants done *is pleasing* him."

560. It is difficult to distinguish —

(1) *An infinitive with the construction of a direct adjective from one with the construction of a noun in apposition, as in: —*

- (1) My desire *to teach* is now satisfied; and,
- (2) My task *to teach* is pleasant.

The infinitive is in apposition when it may change places with the term it modifies without changing the thought of the sentence. Thus, the (2) may be written either *My task is pleasant*, or *To teach is pleasant*; or, the terms may change places so as to read, *To teach, my task, is pleasant*. But in (1), *desire* and *to teach* do not mean the same thing; "*to teach*" merely explains which desire — *desire for teaching*. It would give no meaning to say, "*To teach* is now satisfied." In the (1), therefore, *to teach* has the construction of an adjective; and in (2), *to teach* has the construction of a noun in apposition.

(2) *An infinitive with the construction of a predicate adjective from one with the construction of a predicate noun, as in :—*

- (1) George is *to blame* (blamable).
- (2) Iron is not *to be found* (findable) there.
- (3) To die is *to cease* to live (death is *cessation* of life).
- (4) The way to believe is *to investigate* (investigation).

The infinitives in all such sentences as (1) and (2), it will be observed, only express of subjects such attributes as adjectives might express. The infinitive completing the copulative verb and the subject noun express ideas not at all identical, and could not be made to exchange places without destroying the sense. Such infinitives, therefore, have the construction of predicate adjectives. But in (3) and (4), the italicized infinitives complete the copulas, not like predicate adjectives, but like predicate nouns. No adjective will here take the place of *to cease* and *to investigate*. The sense is precisely the same if we write the sentences, "To cease to live is to die," and "To investigate is the way to believe." All such infinitives, then, as *to cease* and *to investigate* in (3) and (4) have the construction of predicate nouns.

561. Infinitives and participles are alike in —

- (1) *Both are verbs.*
- (2) *Both are unlimited by person and number.*
- (3) *Both assume, and not assert, action, being, and state.*
- (4) *Both express time relatively, not absolutely.*
- (5) *Both have the constructions of nouns, adjectives, and adverbs.*

562. Infinitives and participles are unlike in —

(1) *The participle may become a noun ; as, "Painting is one of the fine arts ;" or an adjective ; as, "Howling wolves," while the infinitive never loses its verbal nature.*

(2) *The infinitive usually has a sign ; the participle has none except its ending.*

563. Sign of the Infinitive.—It must be understood that *to* has no prepositional force when it is used as the sign of the infinitive. It is merely a sign, nothing more. The use of the sign *to* before the infinitive is comparatively recent, and would not be needed if we had a different form for the present indicative. Goold Brown and others parse the infinitive as the object of its sign *to*, which they call a preposition. But the English of to-day furnishes no ground for such a disposition. One had as well parse the present active participle as the object of its ending *ing*. In Anglo-Saxon there was a construction in which *to* governed a verbal noun in the dative ; but we have no trace of it in English. We are told by high authority that the human race has descended from four-footed ancestors. But whether this be true or false, it would certainly be very unscientific, to say the least, to describe the man of to-day as four-footed. But this would not surpass the stupidity of parsing the English infinitive as the object of *to*, which, if it ever had prepositional force, has as clearly lost it as a man has lost his additional pair of feet.

This sign of the infinitive is often lengthened into *in*

order to, as, "He came *in order to learn*." In such sentences, *in order to learn* should be parsed as the infinitive. It gives the wrong meaning to divide the phrase.

564. The sign is omitted after the active verbs *make*, *let*, *see*, *hear*, also after the adverbs *rather* and *lief*; as, "Make him *come in*," "I had as lief not *be*," etc. The omission of the sign is optional after *dare*, *help*, *need*, and *please*, and some others.

The omission of the sign after *make* and *bid* is confined to positive expressions. One would say, "Bid him *come in*," or, "Bid him not *to come in*."

When the verbs *have* and *see* are followed by a passive infinitive, the verb *to be*, as well as the sign *to*, is often suppressed; as, "They would have him [to be] *killed*." "I saw him [to be] *sentenced*."

(a) These statements may not be altogether satisfactory, but no more definite rules can be given. The student must learn from language itself what is the best usage. He will often find that the sign is expressed in a sentence, which, when put in a slightly different form, would require the sign to be omitted; as, "I dare you *to do it*;" "Dare you *do it*?" "I dare *to do*, but I dare not *die*."

565. The Infinitive is that form of the verb, usually preceded by the sign *to*, that, while performing the office of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb, assumes or implies action, being, or state without affirming it, and retains the same form, regardless of the person and number of its subject.

(a) In Greek and Latin, as in English and most other modern languages, "*infinitive*" is used as the general name of the verb, as the verb *to give*, the verb *to love*, etc.

(b) In English, the infinitive without its sign generally has the same form as the present indicative, and they are commonly spoken of together, but they are so different in use that they demand separate treatment.

(c) All participles ending in *ing* and having substantive uses are also frequently called infinitives or participial infinitives.

(d) The infinitive commonly has the construction of a noun, or of an adverb, very seldom that of an adjective.

(e) In English, every transitive verb has four infinitives and four participles, — two of each for each voice. Thus, from the verb *write* we have: —

Infinitives	{	(a) <i>Present Active</i> , TO WRITE.
		(b) <i>Present Passive</i> , TO BE WRITTEN.
		(c) <i>Perfect Active</i> , TO HAVE WRITTEN.
		(d) <i>Perfect Passive</i> , TO HAVE BEEN WRITTEN.
and		
Participles.	{	(a) <i>Present Active</i> , WRITING.
		(b) <i>Present Passive</i> , BEING WRITTEN.
		(c) <i>Perfect Active</i> , HAVING WRITTEN.
		(d) <i>Perfect Passive</i> , HAVING BEEN WRITTEN.

(f) Of course every intransitive verb would lack the passive infinitives and passive participles.

566. The Participle is that form of the verb, usually indicated by its ending, that, while performing the office of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb, assumes or implies action, being, or state without affirming it, and retains the same form regardless of the person and number of its subject.

(a) The participle commonly has the construction of an adjective, or of a noun, very seldom that of an adverb. In all such sentences as the following: —

(1) "I saw George *walking* down Washington Street;" (2) "I saw George *walk* the wire," it will be observed that we use the participle when we wish to direct particular attention, not to the act, but rather to the agent; and the infinitive when the act is the uppermost in our thought. Here *walking* should be parsed as a participle with the construction of an adjective limiting *George*. In (2), *walk* is an infinitive, and the clause, *George to walk the wire*, has the construction of a noun, the object of *saw*.

In the foregoing discussion no effort has been made to have it harmonize with anybody's *dictum* concerning infinitives and participles; on the other hand, no pains have been spared to make it accord with the uses performed by infinitives and participles wherever they may be found in English sentences.

Professor Whitney classes infinitives and participles as

nouns and adjectives. He says, "The line which separates them from the latter is indistinct and variable. The point is one of no small consequence in grammar, and it may fairly be denied that one who is not right in regard to it can call himself a grammarian." But in the light of the facts here brought together, it seems that Professor Whitney ought to have said: "The line that separates infinitives and participles from nouns and adjectives is *distinct* and *invariable*." Then he might have added, with more meaning and more consistency, "The point is one of no small consequence in grammar, and it may fairly be denied that one that is not right in regard to it can call himself a grammarian."

567. Independent Use of Infinitives and Participles. — There are several absolute constructions of infinitives and participles, but in a sentence like, "*To tell* the truth, I do not like him," the infinitive may be parsed as having the construction of an adverb of purpose, limiting a verb understood. Here, to supply the ellipsis, it would read, "To tell the truth, [I confess] I do not like him." If we wish to parse *to tell* without supplying anything, all that can be done is to say that it is an infinitive used independently.

568. Parsing of infinitives and participles.

1. He has gone to *find* his hat.
2. He came *attended* by his friends.
3. The apples are *to be picked* to-morrow.
4. I believe him *to have been* mistaken.

(a) Require pupils to state *definitely* the construction of every infinitive or participle. It is not enough to say of it simply that it has the construction of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb. Expressly state whether it has the construction of a noun in the nominative case, or of a noun in the objective case; whether it has the construction of a direct adjective, a predicate adjective, or a resultant adjective; and if it has the construction of an adverb, state definitely the idea it expresses, whether of time, purpose, cause, etc. Also observe whether it is the infinitive or participle

alone, or its entire clause, that should be given the construction of a noun, adjective, or adverb.

(1) **To find**, v., trans., attrib., irreg., — find, found, found, — act., inf., pres., with the con. of an adv. of purpose, limiting *has gone*, Rules XVI and XI.

(2) [**Being**] **attended**, v., trans., attrib., reg., pass., part., pres., with the con. of a pred. adj., limiting *he*, Rules XVI and X.

(3) **To be picked**, v., trans., attrib., reg., pass., inf., pres., with the con. of a pred. adj., limiting *apples*, Rules XVI and X.

(4) **To have been**, v., intrans., cop., irreg., — am, was, been, — inf., pres. perf., — the entire abridged clause, *him to have been mistaken*, has the con. of a noun in the objective case, obj. of *believe*, Rules XVI and IV.

(b) This form of parsing does not necessarily give case to the infinitive or participle, but only tells what case would be given to a noun so used. But for that matter, there is no good reason for denying case to our infinitives and participles, for, in English, case means *not form* but *relation*.

569. Sentences for Parsing.

(a) Give the complete written parsing, according to the models, of all italicized words, and of all others as signed by the teacher. (b) Several of the following sentences are ambiguous. See that the pupil understands all possible meanings of each sentence, and which meaning was probably the one intended. See, also, that he can give the parsing corresponding to each meaning.

570. (a) Very Simple Constructions.

- (1) *To sin* is to suffer.
- (2) He likes *to rest*.
- (3) They have come to *assist* us.
- (4) *Training* horses is *making* them useful.
- (5) He came *tumbling* in at the door.
- (6) Let us *get* permission to *remain*.
- (7) The boy is anxious to *have* his trial.
- (8) I come not here to *talk*.
- (9) Flee from the wrath to *come*.
- (10) The curious go to *church* to *see*; the vain, to *be seen*.

- (11) The dog *lying* by the child *is protecting* her.
- (12) A letter *written* with a pen is more desirable than one *done* on a typewriter.
- (13) Learn *to live* and live *to learn*.
- (14) It is wrong *to deceive* children.
- (15) *To see* a thing is *to believe* it.
- (16) He believes *trying to be succeeding*.
- (17) The task *to write* an essay was assigned *me*.
- (18) *Lying, telling untruths, is deserving* of punishment.
- (19) Sometimes *to read* seems not *to be to understand*.
- (20) *Studying* seems *to be learning*.
- (21) *Having enjoyed reading* Shakespeare an hour, let us get our lessons.
- (22) She does *nothing but criticise*.
- (23) The *rustling* of the leaves frightened us.
- (24) The *rustling* leaves frightened us.
- (25) The leaves *rustling* near us frightened us.
- (26) *To return* home after this, never! never!
- (27) *Making* sport of a poor simpleton, how rude!
- (28) She is *to blame* for *keeping* us waiting.
- (29) *Murdering* her own child, how dreadful!
- (30) He sits there *growling* instead of *giving thanks*.
- (31) In time *to come* we may succeed *better*.
- (32) This campaign seems more *exciting*.
- (33) He fell *to rise* no more.
- (34) The child is not *well enough to stay*.
- (35) He did his work *well enough to get* the prize.
- (36) The desire *to please* is *worthy of being cultivated*.
- (37) *Being* brief and yet clear, that is most difficult.
- (38) She thought *to study to be better than to be scolded*.
- (39) Good books and magazines *discussing* all current events *are to be found* here.
- (40) Please excuse me for *writing* to you.
- (41) Please excuse me from *writing* to you.
- (42) We saw *him fall*.
- (43) We saw *him walking* down the street.
- (44) He thought merely *to ask to be to get what* he asked for.
- (45) He is considered *to be* reliable.
- (46) He blames us for *being interesting*.
- (47) For one *to know what to try to be* is as difficult as *to be what* one undertakes *to be*.
- (48) Suddenly there came a *tapping, as of* some one gently *rapping, rapping* at my chamber door.

571. (b) More Interesting Constructions.

- (1) The slave stepped upon the block *to be sold*.
- (2) The auctioneer stepped upon the wagon *to be sold*.
- (3) I *am going to sell* my wheat.
- (4) I *am going to town to sell* my wheat.
- (5) *Whom does she want to help?*
- (6) He thought *to go to sea to work to be to try to learn to be a sailor*.
- (7) He believes the man *to have been hanged to satisfy the mob*.
- (8) The house *to have been dedicated* this morning was built *to be used as a church*.
- (9) The band is *to have a new leader*.
- (10) The boy is *to become a man*.
- (11) Diamonds are worn *to become the wearer*.
- (12) I have *to go to sleep*.
- (13) I had as lief not *be as live to be in awe of such a thing as I myself*.
- (14) An important study is *reading*.
- (15) George *is reading*.
- (16) *Studying a book is reading* it attentively.
- (17) I want *to try to do what he wants done*.
- (18) *Try to get ready*.
- (19) Is it better *to be born great, or to have greatness thrust upon us?*
- (20) You may expect the dishes *to be broken*.
- (21) The plate *being broken*, we did not buy it.
- (22) The stones *being broken* are for a foundation.
- (23) An *amusing* story was told.
- (24) The story *is amusing*.
- (25) The story *is amusing* the children.
- (26) The story *amusing* the children was written by Hawthorne.
- (27) *Making children laugh is amusing* them.
- (28) The *amusing* of the child has become a *problem*.
- (29) *Amusing him is pleasing* him.
- (30) His peculiarities made the man *amusing*.
- (31) A man *despised* by everybody is generally a bad man.
- (32) He died *loved* by his friends, but *despised* by his enemies.
- (33) His wickedness made him *despised* by everybody.
- (34) The letters *being written* are to the president.
- (35) The letters *having been written*, the man mailed them.
- (36) The dog *having run out*, my horse became *frightened and unmanageable*.
- (37) I believe *him to have been mistaken* about me.
- (38) I believe him *to have been mistaken* for me.

- (39) Marley was dead, *to begin with*.
- (40) *Selling* whiskey to minors *having been forbidden*, we may look for happier homes.
- (41) His *having disappointed* you in his *teaching of reading* is not so *surprising* as his *denying having made* special preparation for *doing it*.
- (42) Clearly we shall never be able *to do what* we always put off *attempting*.
- (43) I do not remember *to have seen* you *try* it before.
- (44) The team *ordered* by him *is now running* away.
- (45) We are *commanded to do* unto others *as* we would have others *do* unto us.
- (46) It did not seem *to be* you.
- (47) He is said *to be* very rich.
- (48) You *had better try* to go.
- (49) They are about *to begin*.
- (50) I sometimes hold *it half a sin to put* in words the grief I feel.
- (51) *To be*, or not *to be*, — that is the question :
 Whether 'tis nobler in the *mind to suffer*
 The *slings* and arrows of outrageous fortune,
 Or *to take* arms against a sea of troubles.
 And by *opposing* end them.

572. Review of Infinitives and Participles.

(1) What is meant by the scientific method of studying each part of speech? Illustrate. (2) Define a verb. (3) Show that finite verbs do not always assert. (4) Show that infinitives and participles have the classes of verbs, — (a) *attributive* and *copulative*; (b) *transitive* and *intransitive*. (5) Show that infinitives and participles may express *action*, *being*, or *state*. (6) Show that infinitives and participles have the properties of verbs, — (a) *voice*, (b) *mode*, (c) *tense*. (7) What tenses do infinitives and participles have? (8) What time is expressed by each of these tenses? (9) What parts of speech may govern objects? (10) Show that infinitives and participles may govern objects. (11) What is the only part of speech that has a subject? (12) Show that infinitives and participles have subjects. (13) In what case is the subject of an infinitive? Illustrate. (14) In what case is the subject of a participle? Illustrate. (15) Show that infinitives and participles when copulative may be completed by either adjectives or substantives. (16) In what case is the complement of an infinitive copula? (17) In what case is the complement of a participial copula? (18) Illustrate what may be the subject of an infinitive. (19) What is meant by saying that infinitives and participles have a double nature? (20) In addition to their

verbal use, what uses may each have? (21) Show how to determine the construction of an infinitive or of a participle. (22) Show how a word that is commonly a participle may become, — (a) a noun; (b) a direct adjective; (c) a predicate adjective; (d) a resultant adjective; (e) a part of the progressing form of a finite verb. (23) Distinguish, — (a) an infinitive with the construction of a direct adjective from one with the construction of a noun in apposition; (b) an infinitive with the construction of a predicate adjective from one with the construction of a predicate noun. (24) In what are infinitives and participles alike? (25) In what are they unlike? (26) Tell what you know about the sign of the infinitive. (27) Define an infinitive and a participle. (28) Use the word **interesting**, — (a) *as an adjective*, — [1] direct; [2] predicate; [3] resultant; (b) *as a noun*; (c) *as a part of the progressing form of a finite verb*; (d) *as a participle with the construction of an adjective*; (e) *as a participle with the construction of a noun*, — [1] subject of a finite verb, [2] object of a transitive verb, [3] object of a preposition, [4] complement of a finite copula, [5] subject of an infinitive, [6] complement of an infinitive copula whose subject is objective, [7] in apposition. (29) Use similarly each of the following words: **amusing, perplexing, enticing, deceiving, distressing.**

573. Rules of Syntax.

SUBJECTS.

FINITE VERB.

I. The subject of a finite verb is always in the nominative case.

INFINITIVE.

II. The subject of an infinitive is in the objective case when it is not also the subject or attributive complement of a finite verb.

PARTICIPLE.

III. When the subject of a participle does not depend upon any other word in the sentence, it is in the possessive case or nominative absolute: possessive when the participle is used as a noun in a dependent construction, and absolute when the participle with its subject is used independently.

OBJECTS.

TRANSITIVE VERB.

IV. The object of an active transitive verb is in the objective case.

PREPOSITION.

V. The object of a preposition is in the objective case.

IDENTIFICATION.

ATTRIBUTIVE COMPLEMENT.

VI. A noun or pronoun used as the complement of a copulative verb is in the same case as its subject. *Exception.*—When the subject of a copulative participle is possessive, the complement is nominative.

APPOSITION.

VII. A noun or pronoun in apposition is in the same case as the noun or pronoun it explains.

POSSESSIVE CASE.

VIII. A noun or pronoun limiting another noun signifying a different thing is in the possessive case.

ABSOLUTE CASE.

IX. A noun or pronoun used independently is in the nominative absolute case.

MODIFIERS.

ADJECTIVES.

X. Adjectives limit nouns and pronouns.

ADVERBS.

XI. Adverbs (usually) limit verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs.

CONNECTIVE OR RELATION WORDS.**CONJUNCTIONS.**

XII. Conjunctions connect words, phrases, and sentences.

PREPOSITIONS.

XIII. A preposition shows the relation of its object to the word the phrase limits.

AGREEMENT.**PRONOUN.**

XIV. A pronoun agrees with its antecedent in person, number, and gender.

FINITE VERB.

XV. A finite verb agrees with its subject in person and number.

INFINITIVES AND PARTICIPLES.

XVI. Infinitives and participles are used as nouns, adjectives, and adverbs.

INTERJECTIONS.

XVII. An interjection does not depend for grammatical construction upon any other word.

EXPLETIVES.

XVIII. The words *and*, *that*, *there*, *for*, and some others are often used merely as introductory expletives.

ANALYSIS.

574. Grammatical Analysis *is such a separation of the sentence as will show how its parts are related.*

575. Value of Analysis : —

(1) It impresses the principles governing the construction of the sentence.

(2) It leads the student to relate ideas, and to see that their relations determine the relations of the parts of the sentence that express them. One's analysis of a sentence, therefore, will always depend upon his understanding of its thought.

(3) It enables the class and the teacher to compare different understandings.

(4) It cultivates clearness, accuracy, precision, and facility of expression.

(5) It leads to the habit of general analytic thought.

(6) It is delightfully interesting.

576. Form of Analysis. — Analysis is always **mental**. It may be also either **oral** or **written**. Again, written analysis may be **in full** or by **diagram**. Writing the analysis in full affords valuable exercise in punctuation, capitalization, spelling, and neatness, but the teacher should not require more of it than is necessary to the end sought.

577. Analysis by diagram seems unfortunately to have fallen from its former good standing. It has very largely been discarded from the schools. Admitting that, like any other good thing, it may be overdone, I confidently charge that all other criticisms I have heard urged against it are, to put it most charitably, superficial and unpeda-

gogical. The most profound of these objections is, — "You cannot put a sentence in diagram till you know how; and when you know how, what is the use of doing it?" This objection (?) holds equally against solving a problem in arithmetic, demonstrating a proposition in geometry, and writing out a translation.

578. Analysis may be regarded as a kind of abridged parsing. It consists in the classification of sentences and their elements.

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES.

579. *A Sentence is an expression of thought in words.*

580. (A) As to rank, sentences are *Principal* or *Subordinate*.

581. *A Principal Sentence is one not used as a modifier.*

582. *A Subordinate Sentence is one used as an element in a principal sentence.*

(a) "John struck James" is a principal sentence, but in "I believe John struck James," "John struck James" is subordinate, used as a simple objective element. In the last, either *I believe*, or the entire sentence, "I believe John struck James," may be regarded as the principal sentence. When the subordinate clause is used as the subject of a verb, as in "That John struck James is certain," then the clause is an inseparable part of the principal sentence. Also when it is used as a predicate noun,

583. *A Clause is a subordinate sentence.*

584. *Clauses are Substantive, Adjective, Adverbial*, according as they perform the office of a *noun*, of an *adjective*, or of an *adverb*.

585. *A Substantive Clause may be : —*

(1) The subject of a verb : "*That he is a thief* is evident." "We believe *Industry wins* to be a good motto."

(2) The complement of a copula : "His motto is, *Labor conquers all things*." "I believe his motto to be *Labor conquers all things*."

(3) The object of a verb : "I believe *that he is a thief*."

(4) The object of a preposition: "They are disputing about *who was elected*." "I left after *he came*."

(5) In apposition: "The question, *Are we a nation?* was answered by Sumner."

586. An Adverbial Clause may modify:—

(a) An *adverb* or *adjective* to express *degree*, as: "Henry walks *faster than I run*." "You are *better than I am*."

(b) A *verb* to express—

(1) *Time*: "We shall start *when the train arrives*."

(2) *Place*: "Come *where the roses are blooming*."

(3) *Condition*: "You will succeed *if you try*."

(4) *Manner*: "I shall proceed *as you may direct*."

(5) *Purpose*: "He came *that he might be instructed*."

(6) *Reason*: "I will leave *because you are here*."

(7) *Opposition* or *concession*: "Though *he slay me*, yet will I trust him." Such clauses are introduced by *though*, *although*, *notwithstanding*, *however*, etc.

587. An Adjective or Relative Clause may be:—

(1) **Restrictive**: *one that restricts the predication, or distinguishes the object or objects represented by its antecedent from others of the same class*; as, "Words *that are names* are nouns."

(2) **Explanatory**: *one that explains its antecedent or expresses an additional idea*; as, "Words, *which are the signs of ideas*, are divided into classes." "Solomon, *who built the temple*, was the wisest of kings." "The man, *who understood mathematics*, easily followed the explanation."

(a) An explanatory clause expresses a thought *coördinate* with that of the principal sentence, and for this reason it has been called a *coördinating* clause. For example, we may express the meaning of the last three sentences in this way: "Words are divided into classes, and they are the signs of ideas." "Solomon was the wisest of kings, and he built the temple." "The man understood mathematics, and he easily followed the explanation." But it will not give the meaning of the preceding sentence to say: "Words are nouns and they are names."

The student should remember that *who* and *which* are used in all explanatory clauses, and very sparingly in restrictive clauses. Best authorities prefer *that* in all restrictive clauses except when the relative immediately follows a preposition. Then, of course, *whom* or *which* must be used.

588. (B) As to structure, sentences are *Simple, Compound, Partial-Compound, Complex, Complete, and Abridged*.

589. A Simple Sentence is a single statement ; as : —

Cows are quadrupeds. The history of America is a very interesting story. Who came with you ?

590. A Compound Sentence is one containing two or more sentences of equal rank, joined by one or more coördinate connectives ; as : —

Art is long and time is fleeting. He aimed at the target but he could not hit it. They that were first shall be last, and they that were last shall be first.

(a) The first in a compound sentence is called the *leading sentence*, and any other, a *coördinate sentence*. Or they may be designated as first member, second member, etc.

591. A Partial-Compound Sentence is one in which either or both of the principal elements are compound ; as : —

John and Mary are a handsome couple. They came and desired an interview. John and James came and remained.

592. A Complex Sentence is one containing one or more complete subordinate sentences. The subordinate sentence itself may be either simple, complex, or compound.

I believe you are mistaken. I am the man that said you were mistaken. If he is industrious and she is economical, prosperity will crown their efforts.

593. A Complete Sentence is one whose verb is finite ; as : —

She is a musician.

594. An Abridged Sentence is one whose verb is an infinitive or a participle ; as : —

I believe her to be a musician. She being a musician, we were well entertained.

595. (C) As to use, sentences are Declarative, Interrogative, Exclamatory, and Imperative.**596. A Declarative Sentence is one that asserts or denies ; as : —**

He is honest. He is not honest.

597. *An Interrogative Sentence is one that asks a question; as:—*

Is he honest?

598. *An Exclamatory Sentence is one used in exclamation; as:—*

How honest he is!

599. *An Imperative Sentence is one whose verb is imperative; as:—*

Go to the ant. Hear me for my cause.

(a) An imperative is often used with the force of an exclamatory sentence; as, "See that beautiful bird."

(b) The subject of an imperative sentence is usually *thou, you, or ye*, but it is sometimes a noun in the third person, or a pronoun in the first.

Green be their *graves*. Hallowed be thy *name*.

To the next circle, teacher, bend thy steps,

And from this wall dismount *we*.

— *Cary's Dante's Inferno, line 71, canto 24.*

600. In the following, describe the sentences as to *rank, structure, and use*. Also point out the *simple and the complex subject and predicate* of each sentence.

- (1) Hope deferred maketh the heart sick.
- (2) Give me the portion of goods that falleth to me.
- (3) A river with many branches waters the land.
- (4) The old oaken bucket hangs in the well.
- (5) Read books that impart information.
- (6) What a piece of work is man!
- (7) The vine still clings to the mouldering wall, and at every gust the dead leaves fall.
- (8) He will return to school when vacation is over.
- (9) Homer was the greater genius, Virgil the better artist.
- (10) Then see you not his face?

CLASSIFICATION OF ELEMENTS.

601. *Elements are the constituent parts of a sentence.*

602. (A) According to rank, elements are *Principal* and *Subordinate*.

603. Principal Elements are those without which a sentence cannot exist. They are the *Subject* and *Predicate*.

604. The Subject of a sentence is the part that expresses that of which something is predicated.

- (a) The subject is always a substantive.
- (b) The unmodified subject is called the *simple subject*, and the simple subject together with its modifiers is called the *complex subject*.

605. The Predicate of a sentence is the part that makes the predication. It consists of an *attribute* and *copula*; as:—

Sugar *is sweet*.

Birds *are animals*.

Here *is sweet* and *are animals* are the predicates, of which *is* and *are* are the copulas and *sweet* and *animals* are the attributes.

- (a) The copula and attribute are often united in one word; as:—

Susan *reads* = Susan *is a reader*.

- (b) A predicate must always be a verb or contain one, since a verb is the only part of speech that can predicate.

(c) The *copula* is the part of the predicate that joins the attribute to the subject. It is either *pure* or *impure*. The *pure copula* is always some form of the verb *to be*; as, "He *is* wealthy." Many other verbs are used as *impure copulas*; as, "I *feel* dizzy;" "He *looks* sad;" "She *was considered* agreeable;" "He *was appointed* colonel."

- (d) The *attribute* is the attributive part of the predicate. It is always a *noun* or an *adjective* or an expression so used.

- (e) **As a substantive** the attribute may be:—

(1) A **noun**: "He is a *merchant*."

(2) A **pronoun**: "If I were *she*."

(3) A **participle**: "Lying is *telling* untruths."

(4) An **infinitive**: "His business is *to teach* music."

(5) A **clause**: "The question is, *Are you the man?*"

- (f) **As an adjective** the attribute may be:—

(1) An **adjective**: "She is *good*."

(2) An **infinitive**: "Oil is *to be found* in Indiana."

(3) A **prepositional phrase**: "I am *for peace*."

606. (B) According to form, elements are *Simple*, *Compound*, *Partial-Compound*, and *Complex*.

607. A Simple Element is one without modifiers, or considered apart from its modifiers.

"The old man speaks fluently." In this sentence *fluently* is a simple element, because it is without modifiers, and *man* and *speaks* are simple elements if they are considered apart from their modifiers.

608. A Compound Element is one having a compound base.

"Smith and Jones went to Boston and to Chicago." In this sentence *Smith and Jones* is a compound element; also, the element *to Boston and to Chicago*.

609. A Partial-Compound Element is one a part of whose base is compound.

"He is wise and good." Here *wise and good* is the partial-compound predicate—the copula is simple, but the attribute is compound. "The work was performed amidst hardships and dangers." In this sentence *amidst hardships and dangers* is a partial-compound element.

610. A Complex Element is one whose base or some part of it is modified by something not any part of the base.

"The little children ran to the old oak." In this sentence *The little children* and *to the old oak* are complex elements.

(a) **The base** of an element is the part of it that expresses its primary idea. It may be a *word*, a *phrase*, or a *clause*.

"The little girl came to our school." In this sentence *girl* is the base of the element *The little girl*, and *to school* is the base of the element *to our school*. In the sentence, "A boy that is truthful will win respect," the base of the element, *A boy that is truthful*, is *boy*, and the base of the element *that is truthful* is not *that*, *is*, or *truthful*, but the entire clause, *that is truthful*.

(b) When the base of an element is a clause, determine the form of the element by that of the clause. That is, if it is a simple clause, call it a simple element; as, "A student *that is attentive in class* has a great advantage." If it is a compound clause, call it a compound element; as, "I believe *that he is honest and that he will succeed*." If it is a partial-compound clause, call it a partial-compound element; as, "I understand *he is young and capable*." If it is a complex clause, call it a complex element; as, "A teacher *that grumbles when his work is heavy* only makes it heavier."

611. (*C*) According to use, elements are *Adjective, Objective, Subjective, Adverbial, Attendant, and Connective*.

612. An **Adjective Element** is one that modifies a substantive like an adjective.

613. An **Objective Element** is one that is the object of a transitive verb.

614. A **Subjective Element** is one used as the subject of a finite verb or of an infinitive.

615. An **Adverbial Element** is one that modifies anything else than a noun or pronoun, or a verb as its subject or object.

616. An **Attendant Element** is one that has a logical, but no grammatical, connection.

"The sun having risen, we pursued our journey." In this sentence, *The sun having risen* is independent in its grammatical construction, but expresses the logical reason for pursuing the journey.

We, while he spake, ceas'd not our onward road,
Still passing through the wood ; for so I name
Those spirits thick beset. — Dante.

617. A **Connective Element** is one joining two parts of the sentence. It may be a conjunction, relative pronoun, conjunctive or relative adverb, conjunctive adjective, or preposition.

618. (*D*) According to base, elements are of the *First Class*, the *Second Class*, or the *Third Class*.

619. An **Element of the First Class** is one whose base is a single word.

"The furious animals ran rapidly away." All the elements of this sentence are of the first class.

620. An **Element of the Second Class** is one whose base is a preposition and its object, or an infinitive.

The city of *Indianapolis* is on *White River*. He tried to *finish his work*.

621. An **Element of the Third Class** is one whose base is a subordinate sentence.

I believe *that he will do it.* *If you try,* you will succeed. *That the earth is spherical* has been proved.

622. *Point out each element, tell what it modifies, and describe it:—*

(1) **As to structure.**

(2) **As to use.**

(3) **As to base.**

(1) The merchant fulfilled his contract.

(2) A man less diligent in business would have failed in the enterprise.

(3) A man that is honest will be respected.

(4) The children came with laugh and shout, and filled the halls with glee.

(5) We all desire him to become a minister.

(6) The money being furnished, he purchased the estate.

(7) Twilight is weeping o'er the pensive rose.

(8) While the robbers were plundering, she set fire to the house.

(9) As we approached the top of the hill we saw the Indian wigwams.

(10) You will please to speak so that we can hear you.

CONNECTIVES.

623. A **Connective** is any word that joins elements.

624. There are two classes of connectives: *Coördinate* and *Subordinate*.

625. A **Coördinate Connective** is one that joins elements of equal rank. It is always a *coördinate conjunction*; as, *and*, *but*, *or*, *nor*, etc.

626. A **Subordinate Connective** is one that joins elements of unequal rank.

It may be —

(1) *A subordinate conjunction.*

He *will pay you if he promised.* We *believe her because she is truthful.*

(2) *A relative pronoun.*

The **boy that is truthful** will always make friends. I had a **dream, which was not all a dream**. The man **with whom you were walking** is my cousin.

(3) *A relative conjunctive adverb.*

There may be a time **when she will regret it**.

There is a *land* of pure delight,
Where *saints immortal reign*.

(4) *An ordinary conjunctive adverb.*

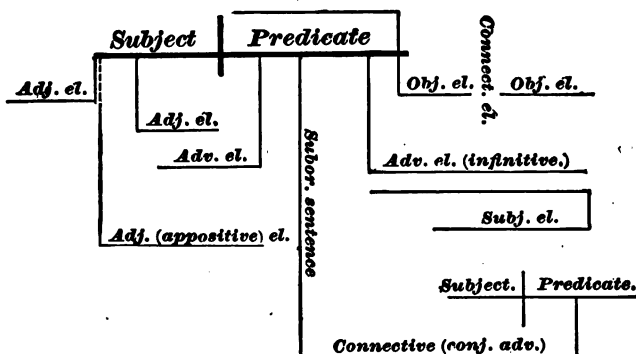
Be merry **while** you may. Do **as** you are directed. Come **when** you are wanted.

(5) *A conjunctive adjective. (Very rare.)*

As *is the labor so the reward should be*.

627.

DIAGRAMMING.



628. The above *blank diagram* exposes at a glance all the essential principles of the *straight-line system of diagrammed analysis*. It may be easily understood from the following —

629: **Explanation.** — The importance of the *subject* and *predicate* of the principal sentence is indicated by the heavy line. They are written upon the same line and separated by a heavy vertical bar to show that they are of equal rank. *All modifiers* are placed below and on lighter lines to show that they are subordinate to the subject and predicate.

To distinguish an *objective element*, let the line on which it is written be brought down from one that extends over the verb. The *subject of an infinitive* is written upon a line that is joined to one drawn under the infinitive. A *conjunction* is written in a break in the line. A *connective* that is also a *modifier* must be written so as to show both its uses. A dotted line indicates an *appositive element*; a parenthesis, an *independent element*. A short

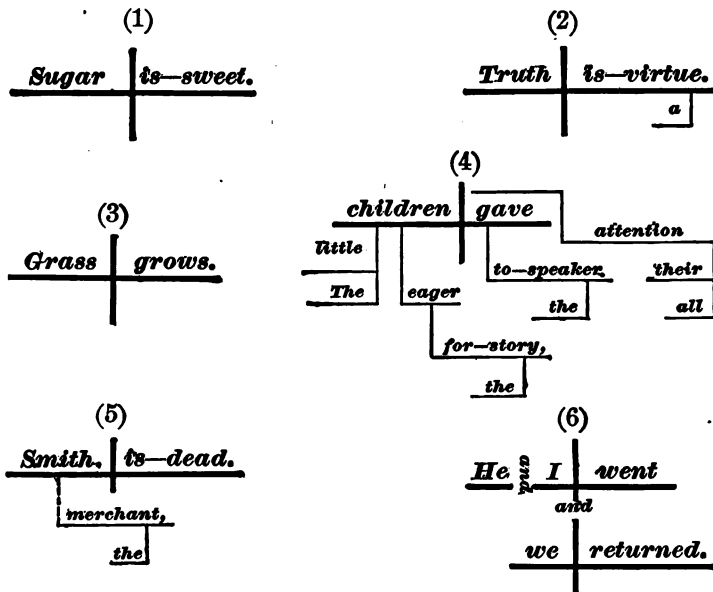
horizontal bar is used to separate a copula and an attribute, also to separate a preposition and its object.

The relative position of elements in the sentence determines the direction of their lines in the diagram: *Word modifiers* turn to the left when they precede the term modified; to the right when they follow it. *Phrases* (prepositional or infinitive) always turn to the right. *Clauses* turn to the right or left, as is most convenient.

630. DIAGRAMS AND ANALYSES.

- (1) Sugar is sweet.
- (2) Truth is a virtue.
- (3) Grass grows.
- (4) The little children, eager for the story, gave all their attention to the speaker.
- (5) Smith, the merchant, is dead.
- (6) He and I went and we returned.

631. Diagrammed Analysis.



632. Written Analysis.

(1) *Sugar is sweet* is a simple declarative sentence, of which *Sugar* is the simple subject, unmodified; and *is sweet* is the simple predicate, unmodified; *is* the copula, and *sweet* the attribute.

(2) *Truth is a virtue* is a simple declarative sentence, of which *Truth* is the simple subject, unmodified; and *is a virtue* is the complex predicate; *is virtue*, the simple predicate, *is*, the copula, unmodified; and *virtue*, the attribute, modified by *a*, a simple adjective element of the first class.

(3) *Grass grows* is a simple declarative sentence, of which *Grass* is the simple subject, and *grows*, the simple predicate.

(4) *The little children, eager for the story, gave all their attention to the speaker*, is a simple declarative sentence, of which *The little children, eager for the story*, is the complex subject, of which *children* is the simple subject, modified by *the* and *little*, two simple adjective elements of the first class; also by *eager for the story*, a complex adjective element of the first class, of which *eager* is the base, modified by *for the story*, a complex adverbial element of the second class, of which *for story* is the base, of which *story*, the noun, is modified by *the*, a simple adjective element of the first class.

(5) *Smith, the merchant, is dead*, is a simple declarative sentence, of which *Smith, the merchant*, is the complex subject, of which *Smith* is the simple subject, modified by *the merchant*, a complex adjective element of the first class; *merchant*, the base, is modified by *the*, a simple adjective element of the first class, of which sentence also *is dead* is the simple predicate, unmodified; *is* the copula, and *dead* the attribute.

(6) *He and I went and we returned* is a compound declarative sentence, of which *He and I went* is the leading, partial-compound, declarative sentence, of which *He and I* is the compound subject, and *and* the coördinate connective; of which sentence, also, *went* is the simple predicate. Of the compound sentence, *and* is the coördinate connective, and *we returned* is the coördinate, simple, declarative sentence, of which *we* is the simple subject, and *returned* the simple predicate, both unmodified.

633. Order of Analysis, Written or Oral.

- (1) Describe the sentence $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} (a) \text{ As to structure.} \\ (b) \text{ As to use.} \end{array} \right.$
- (2) Give the complex subject.
- (3) Give the simple subject.
- (4) Describe its modifiers as to $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} (a) \text{ Structure.} \\ (b) \text{ Use.} \\ (c) \text{ Base.} \end{array} \right.$

- (5) Give the base of each modifier and describe its modifiers as above.
- (6) Give the complex predicate.
- (7) Give the simple predicate.

- (8) Describe the modifiers of the predicate as to

{	(a) Structure.
	(b) Use.
	(c) Base.

- (9) Give the base of each modifier and describe its modifiers as above.

(a) The pupil should follow the above order with the utmost precision. In this way he will most readily learn to analyze, and at the same time receive one of the very best of drills in careful, accurate, rapid thinking; while to attempt to analyze without following *any* particular order not only defeats the object so far as a lesson in grammar is concerned, but is also a very effective means of creating inattention in the class and of giving to the pupil himself a habit of carelessness in thought and expression.

634. Simple and compound sentences for analysis, illustrating the use of adjectives and adverbs: —

- (1) Flowers bloom.
- (2) Dew sparkles.
- (3) Frogs leap.
- (4) Napoleon was banished.
- (5) Grammarians will differ.
- (6) It has been decided.
- (7) The angry wind is howling.
- (8) Little Arthur was murdered.
- (9) A beautiful marble statue was carved.
- (10) Those elegant Etruscan vases are broken.
- (11) We both wept.
- (12) We all consented.
- (13) He spoke eloquently.
- (14) She chattered incessantly.
- (15) They searched everywhere.
- (16) I shall know presently.
- (17) The deafening waves dash angrily.
- (18) The wounded soldier fought bravely.
- (19) Learning expands and elevates the mind.
- (20) The child ran forth and kissed its mother.
- (21) The earth and the moon are planets.
- (22) Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle were the most distinguished philosophers of antiquity.
- (23) Lord Cornwallis became governor of Bengal after his disastrous defeat.

(24) Peter Minutes traded with the Indians and bought the whole island of Manhattan for twenty-four dollars.

(25) Columbus crossed the Atlantic with ninety men, and landed at San Salvador.

635. Sentences illustrating the use of participles, adjectives, and phrases : —

(1) *Gambling is stealing.*

(1)

Gambling | *is — stealing.*

Gambling has the construction of a subject noun, and *stealing* that of a predicate noun. They are both participles.

(2) *Stooping down, I saw the wounded serpent, writhing in agony of death.*

(2)

I | *saw*
stooping | *serpent,*
down, | *wounded* | *writhing*
 | *the* | *in — agony*
 | *of — death.*

(3) A habit of sincerity in *acknowledging* faults is a guard against *committing* them.

(3)

habit | *is — guard*
A | *a* | *against — committing* | *them.*
 | *of — sincerity*
 | *in — acknowledging* | *faults*

(4) He comes *attended* by his friends.

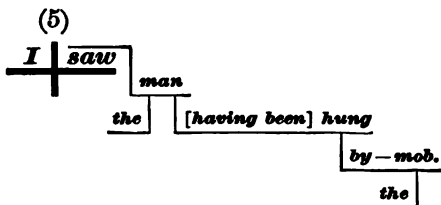
(4)

He | *comes — attended*
 | *by — friends.*
 | *his*

[*Being*] *attended* is a passive participle with the construction of a predicate adjective.

(5) I saw the man *hung* by the mob.

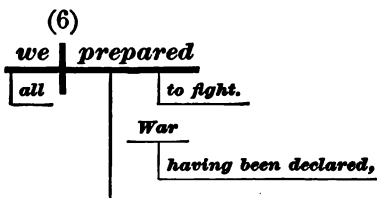
This sentence is ambiguous, as it may mean either that I saw the man after the mob had hung him, or that I witnessed the execution. If the sentence conveys the first meaning, *man* is the object of *saw*, and [*having been*] *hung* is a transitive, passive participle in the present perfect tense, having the construction of an adjective limiting *man*. This would be the diagram : —



636. Analysis. — (5) *I saw the man hung by the mob* is a simple declarative sentence, of which *I* is the simple subject unmodified ; of which sentence, also, *saw the man hung by the mob*, is the complex predicate ; *saw* is the simple predicate, modified by *the man hung by the mob*, a complex objective element of the first class, of which *man*, the base, is modified by *the*, a simple adjective element of the first class, and by *hung by the mob*, a complex adjective element of the first class, of which [*having been*] *hung*, the base, is modified by *by the mob*, a complex adverbial element of the second class ; *by mob* is the base, *mob*, the noun, is modified by *the*, a simple adjective element of the first class.

(a) But if the sentence means to say I witnessed the execution, then *[to be] hung* is a present, passive infinitive, and *man* is its subject in the objective case. The abridged clause, *the man to be hung by the mob*, would be the object of *saw*.

(6) War having been declared, we all prepared to fight.



War having been declared is logically, but not grammatically, related to *prepared*.

637. Analysis. — *War having been declared, we all prepared to fight* is a simple declarative sentence, etc. *Prepared*, the simple predicate, is modified by *to fight*, a simple adverbial element of the second class. It is *logically* modified also by *war having been declared*, which, *grammatically*, is a complex independent or attendant element of the first class, of which *war*, the base, is modified by *having been declared*, a simple adjective element of the first class.

War is a noun in the nominative case, subject of the participle *having been declared*, which has the construction of an adjective limiting *war*.

638. Analyze orally and by diagram, giving particular attention to the italicized words.

(1) On a grassy bank stood a tall, *waving* ash, sound to the very core.

(2) God's balance, *watched* by angels, is hung across the sky.

(3) *Mistaking* one for the other, they took him, a little fellow *called* Red Billy, for me.

(4) *There* is no harm in children's *playing* by the roadside.

(5) *There* is no harm in children *playing* by the roadside.

(6) The pardon of the governor prevented his *being hanged*.

(7) I saw a horse *covered* with a blanket.

(8) *Taking* a madman's sword *to prevent* his *doing* mischief cannot be regarded as *robbing* him.

(9) *Scaling* yonder peak, I saw an eagle *wheeling* near its brow.

(10) All *bloodless* lay the *untrodden* snow.

(11) Her chief business was *sauntering* about the neighborhood and *spending* her time in idle gossip.

(12) Ha ! laugh'st thou, Lochiel, my vision *to scorn* ?

(13) We heard the rain *beating* upon the doorstep.

(14) We saw the package *opened* by mistake.

(15) *Gambling* is *stealing*.

(16) Did you see the tree *struck* by lightning ?

(17) The horse *hitched* to the carriage was sold for *a thousand* dollars.

(18) The burning of the capital was outrageous.

(19) Have you not seen strong men *weeping* ?

(20) *Having sold* his residence in the city, the man moved to his farm near the lakes.

(21) The general *having been captured*, the army was defeated.

(22) The writer *being* a scholar is not doubted.

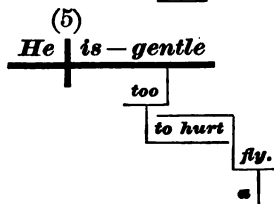
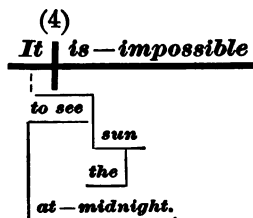
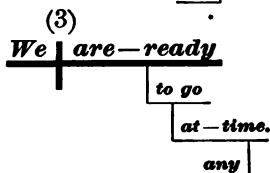
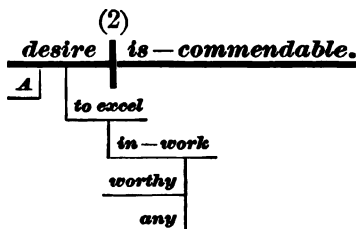
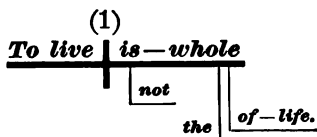
(23) The writer's *being* a scholar is not doubted.

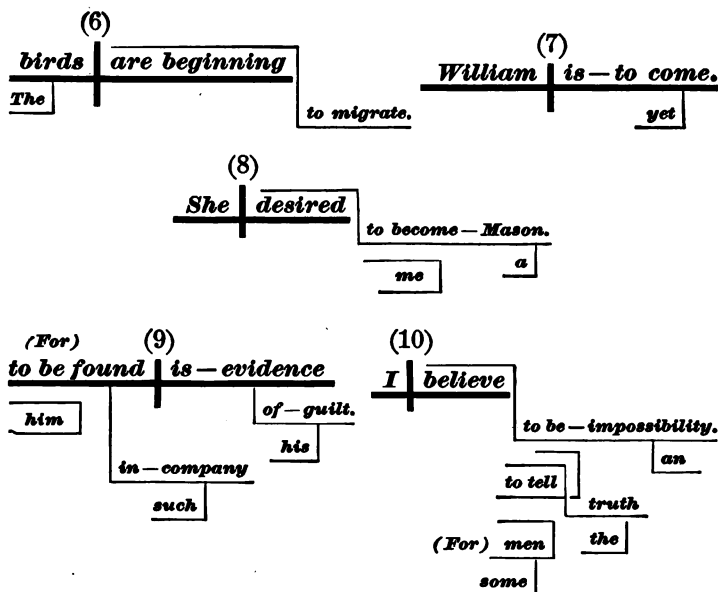
(24) I never heard of that man *running* for office.

- (25) I never heard of that man's *running* for office.
 (26) The child stood *weeping*.
 (27) The dog came *limping*.
 (28) The philosopher sat *buried* in thought.
 (29) No one ever saw fat men *heading* a riot or *herding* together in turbulent mobs.
 (30) The bridge at Ashtabula *giving* way, the train fell into the river.
 (31) Spring comes *robed* in silken green.
 (32) A word can send the crimson color *hurrying* to the cheek with many meanings.

639. Infinitives and Subjective Elements.

- (1) To live is not the whole of life.
 (2) A desire to excel in any worthy work is commendable.
 (3) We are ready to go at any time.
 (4) It is impossible to see the sun at midnight.
 (5) He is too gentle to hurt fly.





- (a) *To live* in (1) has the construction of a noun, subject of *is*.
- (b) *To excel* in (2) has the construction of an adjective limiting *desire*.
- (c) *To go* in (3) has the construction of an adverb limiting *ready*.
- (d) *To see* in (4) has the construction of a noun in apposition with *it*.
- (e) *To hurt* in (5) has the construction of an adverb of degree, limiting *too*.
- (f) *To migrate* in (6) has the construction of a noun, object of *are beginning*.
- (g) *To come* in (7) has the construction of a predicate adjective.
- (h) In (8) the clause, *me to become a Mason*, has the construction of a noun, object of *desired*.
- (i) *For* in (9) is an introductory expletive, and the clause, *for him to be found in such company*, has the construction of a noun, subject of *is*.
- (j) In (10), the clause, *for some men to tell the truth to be an impossibility*, has the construction of a noun, object of *believe*. The clause, *for some men to tell the truth*, has the construction of a noun in the objective case, subject of the infinitive *to be*. *Men* is in the objective case, subject of the infinitive *to tell*, and *for* is an introductory expletive.

640. Analysis. — (8) *She desired me to become a Mason* is a simple declarative sentence, of which *She* is the simple subject unmodified ; of which sentence, also, *desired me to become a Mason* is the complex predicate, of which *desired* is the simple predicate, modified by *me to become a Mason*, a complex objective element of the second class. It is also a simple abridged sentence, of which *to become Mason* is the simple predicate, of which *to become* is the copula, modified by *me*, a simple subjective element of the first class ; *Mason*, the attribute, is modified by *a*, a simple adjective element of the first class.

(10) *For some men to tell the truth I believe to be an impossibility* is a simple declarative sentence, of which *I* is the simple subject unmodified. *Believe for some men to tell the truth to be an impossibility* is the complex predicate, of which *believe* is the simple predicate, modified by *for some men to tell the truth to be an impossibility*, a complex objective element of the second class ; it is also a complex abridged sentence, of which *to be impossibility* is the simple predicate ; *impossibility*, the attribute, is modified by *an*, a simple adjective element of the first class ; and *to be*, the copula, is modified by *For some men to tell the truth*, a complex subjective element of the second class ; it is also a simple, abridged, subordinate sentence, of which *to tell*, the base, is modified by *the truth*, a complex objective element of the first class ; *truth*, the base, is modified by *the*, a simple adjective element of the first class. *To tell* is modified, also, by *some men*, a complex subjective element of the first class, of which *men*, the base, is modified by *some*, a simple adjective element of the first class. *For* is an introductory expletive.

641. Diagram and analyze, giving special attention to the italicized words : —

- (1) These apples are not *to be eaten*.
- (2) He remained *to assist* in the work.
- (3) *For you to become* a grammarian will require much study.
- (4) *It is* hard work *to plow*.
- (5) He thinks *it* delightful *to teach* grammar.
- (6) My desire *to teach* is now satisfied.
- (7) My task *to teach* is pleasant.
- (8) I wish *you* to be a *teacher*, but I wish to be a *preacher*.

(a) What is the case of the subject of (1) a finite verb, (2) an infinitive, (3) a participle ?

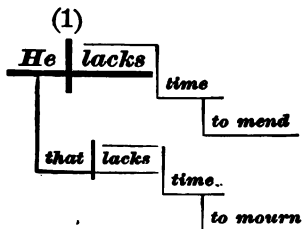
(b) In what case is the complement of a copulative verb ?

(c) Name and illustrate three general uses infinitives and participles have in addition to their verbal use ?

(d) The (6) and (7) illustrate the difference between an infinitive with the construction of an adjective and one with the construction of a noun in apposition, which sometimes troubles a beginner. When an infinitive is in apposition, either it or the substantive it modifies may be omitted, leaving a sentence that expresses essentially the same thought; as in (7), My task is pleasant, or, To teach is pleasant; or the two terms may exchange places without changing the meaning; as, To teach, my task, is pleasant. But in (6) *desire* and *to teach* do not mean the same thing; *to teach* merely designates which desire, — *desire for teaching*. It modifies desire, not like an appositive, but like an adjective. It therefore has the construction of an adjective.

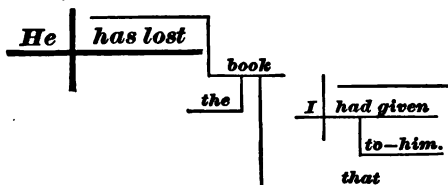
642. Analysis of Complex Sentences.

- (1) He that lacks time to mourn lacks time to mend.
- (2) He has lost the book that I had given to him.
- (3) When he had completed his task the boy went out to play.
- (4) He announced that the train had arrived.
- (5) That he is the thief is evident.
- (6) His objection was that the boy was too young.
- (7) It has been claimed that Lord Bacon wrote Shakespeare's works.
- (8) She is taller than her sister.
- (9) It was so cold that the mercury froze.
- (10) The Indian knows the place where his friends are buried.
- (11) He demanded of them where Christ should be born.
- (12) As is the boy so will be the man.
- (13) We will work till Jesus comes.
- (14) These exercises are as profitable as they are interesting.
- (15) When my father and my mother forsake me, then the Lord will take me up.
- (16) Blücher arrived on the field of Waterloo just as Wellington was meeting the last onslaught of Napoleon.
- (17) The wiser he grew the humbler he became.
- (18) I was grieved when I heard how he had obtained the reputation that he bore among his neighbors.



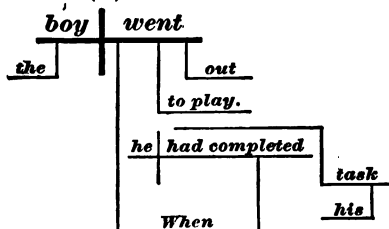
643. Analysis. — (1) *He that lacks time to mourn lacks time to mend* is a complex declarative sentence, of which *He that lacks time to mourn* is the complex subject; *He*, the simple subject, is modified by *that lacks time to mourn*, a simple adjective element of the third class; it is also a simple, declarative, subordinate sentence, of which *that* is the simple subject; *that* is also a subordinate connective, joining the clause, *that lacks time to mourn*, to its antecedent, *He*; of which subordinate sentence, also, *lacks time to mourn* is the complex predicate, of which *lacks* is the simple predicate, modified by *time to mourn*, a complex objective element of the first class, of which *time*, the base, is modified by *to mourn*, a simple adjective element of the second class; of which principal sentence, also, *lacks time to mend* is the complex predicate, of which *lacks*, the simple predicate, is modified by *time to mend*, a complex objective element of the first class, of which *time*, the base, is modified by *to mourn*, a simple adjective element of the second class.

(2)

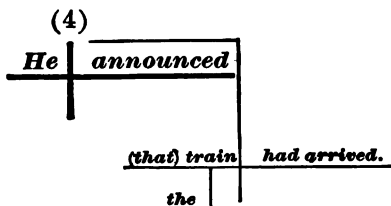


644. Analysis. — *Book* is modified by *that I had given to him*, a simple adjective element of the third class; it is also a simple declarative subordinate sentence, of which *I* is the simple subject, unmodified; of which sentence, also, *had given that to him* is the complex predicate; *had given*, the simple predicate, is modified by *to him*, a simple adverbial element of the second class; also by *that*, a simple objective element of the first class; it is also the subordinate connective, joining to its antecedent, *book*, the subordinate sentence, *that I had given to him*.

(3)

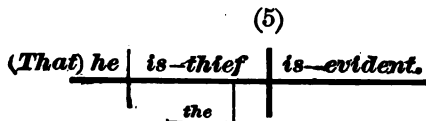


645. *Went* is modified by *when he had completed his task*, a simple adverbial element of the third class; it is also a simple, declarative, subordinate sentence, of which *he* is the simple subject; of which subordinate sentence, also, *had completed his task* *when* is the complex predicate; *had completed*, the simple predicate, is modified by *his task*, a complex objective element of the first class, of which *task*, the base, is modified by *his*, a simple adjective element of the first class; *had completed* is modified also by *when*, a simple adverbial element of the first class; it is also a subordinate connective, joining the clause, *when he had completed his task*, to the verb, *went*.



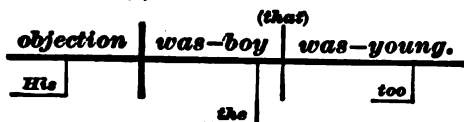
646. **Analysis.** — *He announced that the train had arrived* is a complex declarative sentence, of which *He* is the simple subject, unmodified; of which sentence, also, *announced that the train had arrived* is the complex predicate, of which *announced* is the simple predicate, modified by *that the train had arrived*, a simple objective element of the third class; it is also a simple, declarative, subordinate sentence, of which *that* is the introductory expletive, and *the train* is the complex subject, of which *train*; the simple subject, is modified by *the*, a simple adjective element of the first class; of which subordinate sentence, also, *had arrived* is the simple predicate, unmodified.

(a) A substantive clause needs no connective.



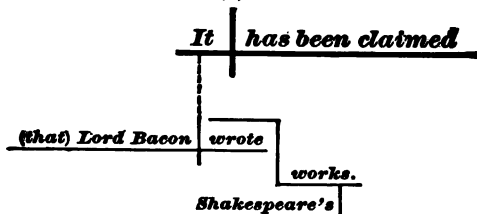
647. **Analysis.** — *That he is the thief is evident* is a complex declarative sentence, of which *That he is the thief* is the simple subject. It is also a simple, declarative, subordinate sentence, of which *That* is the introductory expletive, *he* the simple subject, and *is the thief* is the complex predicate, of which *is thief* is the simple predicate, *is* the copula, unmodified, and *thief*, the attribute, modified by *the*, a simple adjective element of the first class. Of the principal sentence, *is evident* is the simple predicate, of which *is* is the copula and *evident* the attribute.

(6)



648. Analysis. — *Was that the boy was too young* is the simple predicate, of which *was* is the copula, and *that the boy was too young* the attribute ; it is also a simple, declarative, subordinate sentence, of which *that* is the introductory expletive, and *the boy*, the complex subject ; *boy*, the simple subject, is modified by *the*, a simple adjective element of the first class ; of which subordinate sentence, also, *was too young* is the complex predicate, *was young* is the simple predicate, *was* the copula, unmodified, and *young* the attribute, modified by *too*, a simple adverbial element of the first class.

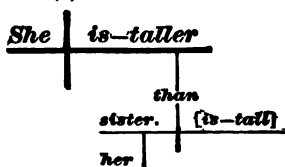
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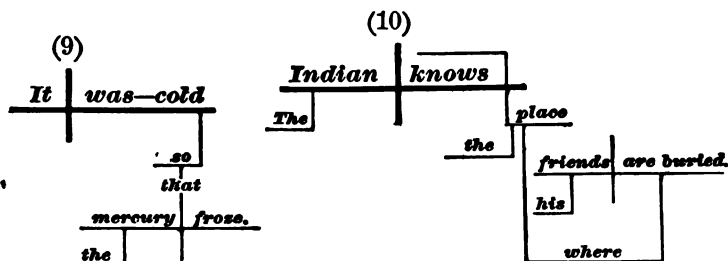
649. Analysis. — This is a complex declarative sentence, of which *It that Lord Bacon wrote Shakespeare's works* is the complex subject, of which *It*, the simple subject, is modified by *that Lord Bacon wrote Shakespeare's works*, a simple adjective element of the third class ; it is also a simple, declarative, subordinate sentence, of which *that* is the introductory expletive, *Lord Bacon* the simple subject, etc.

(a) *That Lord Bacon wrote Shakespeare's works* is a substantive clause in apposition with *it*.

(8)



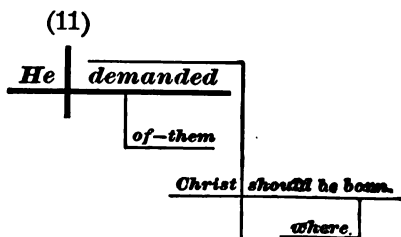
650. Analysis. — *Taller* is modified by *than her sister is tall*, a simple adverbial element of the third class ; it is also a simple, declarative, subordinate sentence, of which *than* is the connective, etc.



(a) *So* in (9) is an adverb of degree, modified by *that the mercury froze*, a simple adverbial element of the third class.

(b) *Place* in (10) is modified by *where his friends are buried*, a simple adjective element of the third class.

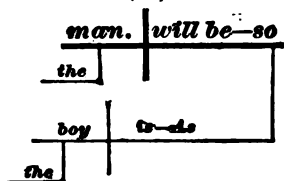
(c) *Where* is a relative conjunctive adverb ; it limits *are buried* and joins its clause to the noun *place*.



(a) *Demanded* is modified by *where Christ should be born*, a simple objective element of the third class ; it is also a simple, indirect-interrogative, or responsive, subordinate sentence, etc.

(b) *Where* is a simple, interrogative adverb, but not a connective. No connective is needed for a substantive clause. It may be well to remember that no interrogative word is ever a connective.

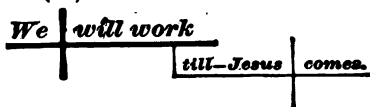
(12)



(a) *As . . . so* are correlative, or responsive, indefinite, descriptive, predicate adjectives. They cannot be regarded as adverbs, for *is*, in either sentence, is copulative, not attributive.

(b) *Is so* is the predicate of the principal sentence, *is*, the copula, and *so*, the attribute. *So* is modified by *As is the boy*, a simple adverbial element of the third class, of which *is As* is the simple predicate, *is*, the copula, and *As*, the attribute. *As* is also the subordinate connective, joining its subordinate sentence to *so*.

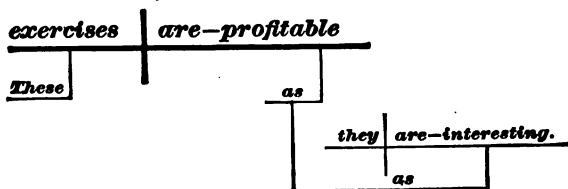
(13)



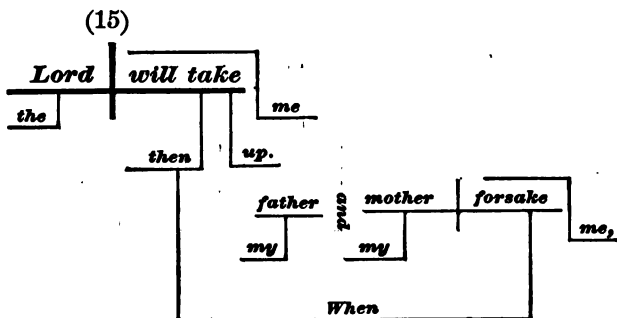
(a) *Will work* is modified by *till Jesus comes*, a simple adverbial element of the second class, of which *till Jesus comes* is the base, *till*, the preposition, and *Jesus comes*, the object; it is also a simple, declarative, subordinate sentence, of which *Jesus* is the simple subject, and *comes* the simple predicate.

(b) *Till* must not be parsed as a conjunctive adverb in such sentences.

(14)

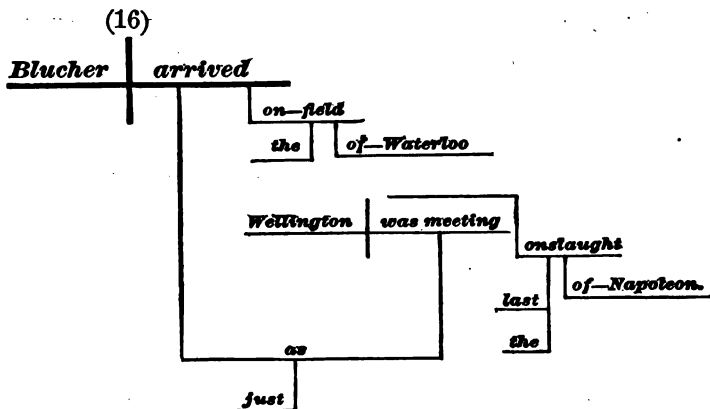


(a) *As . . . as* are correlative or responsive adverbs of degree. First *as* is a simple adverb, and limits *profitable*. The second *as* is a conjunctive adverb ; it limits *interesting* and joins its subordinate sentence to the first *as*.



(a) *Then* is modified by *When my father and my mother forsake me*, a partial-compound, adverbial element of the third class ; it is also a partial-compound, declarative, subordinate sentence, of which *my father and my mother* is the compound, complex subject, of which *my father* is the first member ; *father*, the base, is modified by *my*, a simple adjective element of the first class ; *my mother* is the second member, of which *mother*, the base, is modified by *my*, a simple adjective element of the first class, etc.

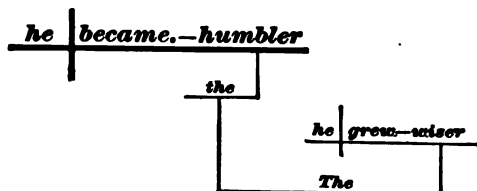
(b) *When . . . then* are correlative or responsive adverbs of time. *When* is a conjunctive adverb ; it limits *forsake*, and joins its subordinate sentence to *then*, which is a simple adverb and limits *will take*.



(a) *As* is a conjunctive adverb of time ; it limits *was meeting*, and joins its subordinate sentence to *arrived*.

(b) *Just* is a simple adverb of degree, and limits *as*.

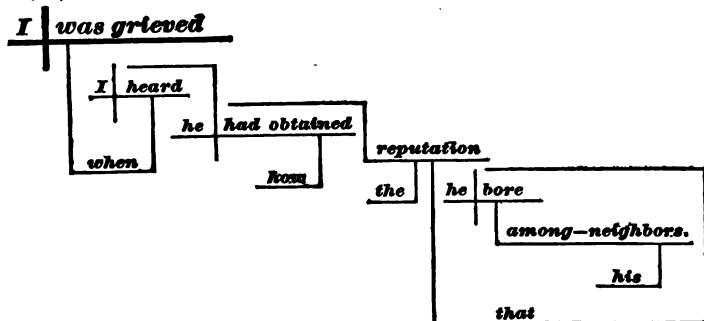
(17)



(a) The first *the* is a conjunctive adverb of degree ; it limits *wiser*, and joins its subordinate sentence to the second *the*.

(b) The second *the* is a simple adverb of degree, and limits *humbler*. *Humbler* and *wiser* are predicate adjectives ; *became* and *grew*, copulative verbs. The meaning is, *He became humbler to the degree to which he grew wiser*.

(18)



(a) *When* is a conjunctive adverb of time ; it limits *heard*, and joins its subordinate sentence to *was grieved*.

(b) *How* is an indirect interrogative or responsive adverb of manner, limiting *had obtained*. *How* is not a connective.

(c) *That* is a relative pronoun, used as the object of *bore* ; it joins its clause to *reputation*.

651. *Analysis*. — *I was grieved when I heard how he had obtained the reputation that he bore among his neighbors* is a complex declarative

sentence, of which *I* is the simple subject, unmodified ; of which sentence, *was grieved when I heard how he had obtained the reputation that he bore among his neighbors* is the complex predicate, of which *was grieved* is the simple predicate, modified by *when I heard how he had obtained the reputation that he bore among his neighbors*, a complex adverbial element of the third class ; it is also a complex, declarative, subordinate sentence, of which *I* is the simple subject, unmodified ; of which subordinate sentence, also, *heard when how he had obtained the reputation that he bore among his neighbors* is the complex predicate, of which *heard* is the simple predicate, modified by *when*, a simple adverbial element of the first class ; it is also the subordinate connective, joining the complex adverbial clause to *was grieved* ; *heard* is modified, also, by *how he had obtained the reputation that he bore among his neighbors*, a complex objective element of the third class ; it is also a complex, indirect-interrogative, subordinate sentence, of which *he* is the simple subject, unmodified ; of which subordinate sentence, also, *had obtained how the reputation that he bore among his neighbors* is the complex predicate, of which *had obtained* is the simple predicate, modified by *how*, a simple adverbial element of the first class, also by *the reputation that he bore among his neighbors*, a complex objective element of the first class ; *reputation*, the base, is modified by *the*, a simple adjective element of the first class, also by *that he bore among his neighbors*, a simple adjective element of the third class ; it is also a simple, declarative, subordinate sentence, of which *he* is the simple subject, unmodified, of which sentence, also, *bore that among his neighbors* is the complex predicate, of which *bore* is the simple predicate, modified by *that*, a simple objective element of the first class ; it is also the connective, joining its clause, *that he bore among his neighbors*, to *reputation* ; *bore* is modified, also, by *among his neighbors*, a complex adverbial element of the second class, of which *among neighbors* is the base, and *neighbors*, the noun, is modified by *his*, a simple adjective element of the first class.

ABRIDGMENT.

652. A **Simple Sentence** may be changed to one that is **complex** by expanding any one of its words or phrases into a proposition. Thus, "A *wise* man will always be sought by those *desiring to learn*," is a simple sentence; but if the word *wise*, and the phrase *desiring to learn*, be expanded into propositions, we shall have the complex sentence, "A man *that is wise* will always be sought by those *that desire to learn*," which expresses the same thought.

653. **Expansion.** — This process may be called **expansion**.

654. A **Complex Sentence** may be changed to one that is **simple** by contracting its subordinate propositions into words or phrases. Thus, "Dr. Franklin, *who was the projector of many useful institutions*, was bred a printer," "Because some truths are difficult of comprehension, the weak reject them," "He came *that he might see the distinguished statesman*," are complex sentences; but we may make them simple by contracting their subordinate clauses: "Dr. Franklin, *the projector of many useful institutions*, was bred a printer," "Some truths *being difficult of comprehension*, the weak reject them," "He came *to see the distinguished statesman*."

655. **Abridgment.** — *The process by which subordinate clauses are changed into equivalent words or phrases is called abridgment.*

GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF ABRIDGMENT.

656. (1) The **Abridged Part** has the same construction in the simple sentence as the **clause** in the complex sentence; that is, it is either *substantive*, *adjective*, or *adverbial*.

(a) The best way to determine the construction of a clause is to observe the construction of the word or phrase into which it may be abridged. And to determine the construction of a word or phrase, observe the construction of the clause into which it may be expanded.

657. (2) It will be observed from the example above that it is only the **Principal Elements** (*subject* and *predicate*) that are changed in abridging a clause. The subordinate elements are joined to the abridged form without alteration.

658. **Kinds of Abridgment.**—Since the thought of a clause may be expressed by a *word* or *phrase*, there arise two kinds of abridgment: **Word Abridgment** and **Phrase Abridgment**.

659. **The Basis** of a *word abridgment* may be a *noun*, an *adjective*, or a *participle*, as may be seen from abridging the following: "Jones, *who was our doctor*, died." "The boy *that is studious* will learn." "The man, *who is playing with the children*, is my uncle."

(a) Clauses denoting time or reason are abridged by using participles and their subjects absolutely. Thus, "When the sun had risen we pursued our journey," and "We were in time because the train was late," are the same in thought as "The sun having risen, we pursued our journey," and "The train being late, we were in time."

660. **The Basis** of a *phrase abridgment* may be a *prepositional* or an *infinitive* phrase. Thus, "A man *that is generous*," "A man *of generosity*," and "He lied *that he might escape punishment*," "He lied *to escape punishment*."

(a) **The infinitive phrase** is employed chiefly to abridge clauses introduced by *that*.

(b) **The infinitive phrase** is used also to abridge certain adjective clauses introduced by a preposition and a relative, as "Send me some money *with which I may buy my dinner*" = "Send me some money *with which to buy my dinner*." "For which to strive," "At which to shoot," "On which to depend," etc., are contractions or abridgments in which is found a peculiar use of the relative, that is, it does not join to its ante-

cedent a limiting clause. The relative in such cases relates or refers to its antecedent, but does not join anything to it; for the infinitive limits the antecedent of the relative, and an infinitive does not require a connective to join it to the word it limits. The relative itself is the object in the prepositional phrase that limits the infinitive as an adverbial element.

(c) **Certain indirect interrogative clauses** used as substantives are abridged by omitting the subject, changing the predicate to an infinitive, and placing before it the interrogative word; as, "I know not *whom I may ask*" = "I know not *whom to ask*." In the same manner we have *what to do, where to look, whom to send, when to begin, how to proceed*, etc. But it must be understood that the words *whom, what, where, when, how*, etc., are not connectives either in the expanded or in the abridged sentence, for *no interrogative word is ever a connective*.

CASE OF SUBJECT IN ABRIDGED PROPOSITIONS.

661. If the subject of a subordinate clause refers to the same as the subject of the principal clause, it is not retained in the abridgment.

Ex. — "I desire *that I may learn*" = "I desire *to learn*." (See Rules I and II.)

662. When the subject of the subordinate clause does not refer to the same as the subject of the principal clause, it is retained in the abridgment, and is in the nominative absolute case, the possessive, or the objective; as: —

"*When shame is lost*, all virtue is gone" = "*Shame being lost*, all virtue is gone." "I heard *that he had stolen the money*" = "I heard of *his stealing the money*." "I desire *that he be a merchant*" = "I desire *him to be a merchant*." (See Rules I, II, and III.)

CASE OF COMPLEMENT IN ABRIDGED PROPOSITIONS.

663. The complement of a copulative verb is either an *adjective* or a *noun*, or some expression so used.

664. If it is an adjective, it will remain a predicate adjective and modify the subject of the verb in the abridged proposition.

665. If it is a noun or pronoun, its case will always be governed by Rule VI: A noun or pronoun used as the complement of a copulative verb is in the same case as its subject. **EXCEPTION.** — When the subject of a copulative participle is possessive, the complement is nominative.

(a) **Illustration of Rule.** — “If I were *she*,” “I wished to be *she*.” *She* in either sentence is nominative, so is *I*, the subject. “He wished me to be *her*.” *Me*, the subject of *to be*, is objective, and *her*, the complement, is objective. “He being a *scholar*, we asked him his opinion.” *He*, the subject of the participle, is in the nominative absolute, and *scholar*, the complement, is in the same case. If a pronoun should be used in the same construction as *scholar*, its form would show it to be either *nominative* or *nominative absolute*; and since no reason appears for supposing this an exception to the general rule stated above, the complements of all such participles are in the nominative absolute case.

(b) In abridging certain adjective clauses, like “Here is a man *that is called a thief*,” the relative is dropped, and nothing appears in the abridged form to take its place; but the noun that is the complement is put in the same case as the word upon which the clause depends. Thus, the above sentence abridged would read: “Here is a man *called a thief*.” *Man* is in the nominative case, and *thief* is also nominative. This, however, is no exception to Rule VI, for *man*, the subject of *is*, is also the subject of *called*. A substantive may be the subject both of a finite and an in-finite verb in the same sentence; or it may be the *object* of a verb or preposition and the subject of a participle in the same sentence. I am aware that we have good authority opposing the last statement, but I am unable to understand why a noun may not be the object of one verb and the subject of another. And it is certainly not inconsistent with the reality of the thought to be conveyed; for a man may be at the same time the *object* or *recipient* of one action and the *agent* of another. For example, I may strike a thief while he is taking my money, which may be expressed, “I struck the *thief* taking my money.” The authors that say that “a word cannot be both the object of one verb and the subject of another,” say also that “every participle must have a subject either expressed or understood,” which statements are inconsistent. In the above sentence, if *thief* is not the subject of *taking*, it has no subject, for no word can be supplied for a subject without destroying the sentence. A little reasoning will make it clear that *thief* is both the *object* of *struck* and the *subject* of *taking*; for, if the thief could be consulted in the matter, he would be found to entertain no doubts about being the identical

object that was struck, and the only reason that I could give for making him the *object* of the *striking* is that he was the *agent* of the *taking*.

(c) But while it is evident that a noun or pronoun may be found in two constructions, it must be remembered that it can be governed by but one of them. For example, in the sentence, "He wants to learn," *He* is nominative, because it is the subject of the finite verb *wants*, not because it is the subject of the infinitive *to learn*. And in the sentence, "I saw a man called a thief," *man* is both the object of *saw* and the subject of *called*, but is objective only because it is the object of *saw*. But *thief*, the complement of *called*, is objective to agree in case with *man*, the subject of *called*.

(d) **Explanation of Exception.** — "That he is a scholar has never been questioned." In this, the subject of the subordinate clause is *he*, and the complement is *scholar*, both in the nominative case. But the clause is abridged by dropping *that*, changing the finite verb *is* to the participle *being*, changing the nominative *he* to the possessive *his*, and leaving *scholar* unchanged. Then we have, "*His being a scholar* has never been questioned." *His*, the subject of *being*, is evidently *possessive*; but *why* is *scholar*, the complement, *nominative*?

(1) *Scholar* was *nominative* before the clause was abridged.

(2) No change has taken place in the process of abridgment to cause any change in its case, unless it should follow the general rule and become possessive when the subject becomes possessive.

(3) It is not possessive, for it does not have the possessive sign, neither does it denote possession.

(4) *Therefore, scholar, or the complement in all such cases, is nominative.*

666. Diagram and analyze, giving particular attention to italicized words: —

(1) The belief *that* stars are suns is held by astronomers.

(2) *There* is no need *that* she be present.

(3) The opinion *that* the soul is immortal has been almost universally entertained.

(4) Let *it* be understood *that* I will pursue this course no longer.

(5) The man *that* cannot put fire into his speeches should put his speeches into the fire.

(6) The sumptuous cities *that* have lighted the world since the beginning of time are now beheld only in the pictures of the historian of the past.

(7) The smallest dewdrop *that* lies on the meadow at night has a star sleeping in its bosom.

(8) We should endeavor *to secure* the friendship of the Being *that* holds in His hands the reins of the universe.

(9) Black, smoking ruins marked the place that had been the *habitation* of her children.

(10) Nature never did betray the heart that loved her.

(11) This is the *house that* Jack built.

(12) Webster was a man that the country will remember with pride.

(13) There are occasions in life in which a great mind will live *years* of rapt enjoyment in a moment.

(14) The challenge *to combat* was given by *touching* the shield of the knight *whom* the challenger wished to encounter.

(15) Not a single region *that* the Indians can now call their own do the winds of the Atlantic fan.

(16) The atrocious crime of *being* a young man, *which* the honorable gentleman has with such spirit of decency charged upon me, I shall attempt neither *to palliate* nor to deny.

(17) The *jingling* of the guineas helps the hurt *that* honor feels.

(18) It is not always easy *to make* one's self just *what* one wishes *to be*.

(19) He, beneath whose proud footstep Europe trembled, became a *prisoner* on the rock-bound isle of St. Helena.

(20) God seems *to have made him what* he was.

(21) A has three *times* as much money as B.

(22) He told me *what* I never heard of before.

(23) We are here *to hear what* you shall say.

(24) Infidelity gives nothing in return for *what* it takes away.

(25) The thief refused *to divide what* he had stolen.

(26) Such *as* are virtuous are happy.

(27) *As many as* came were satisfied.

(28) The son has the same indications *as* his father.

(29) *Whoever* wins may laugh.

(30) *Whatever* purifies the heart also fortifies it.

(31) Whoever seeks the good of others will himself be blest.

(32) He threatened *to shoot whoever* tried to stop him.

(33) Toward night the schoolmaster walked over to the cottage *where* his little friend lay sick.

(34) *There was a time when* I was free to roam.

(35) Youth is the time *when* the seeds of character are sown.

(36) It is the hour *when* lovers' vows
Seem sweet in every whispered word.

- (37) At midnight, in his guarded tent,
The Turk lay dreaming of the hour
When Greece, her knee in suppliance bent,
Should tremble at his power.
- (38) Deep in the wave is a coral grove
Where the purple mullet and the gold-fish rove.
- (39) *There* is a land of pure delight,
Where saints immortal reign.
- (40) *Not* a soldier discharged his farewell shot
O'er the grave *where* our hero we buried.
- (41) *And* all the air-a solemn stillness holds,
Save where the beetle wheels his *droning* flight.
- (42) She has sent for the lady she believed to be a governess.
- (43) I knew the man, *whom* the general appointed captain.
- (44) I saw the man, *who* we believed was sick.
- (45) The boy closed the shutters, *which* darkened the room.
- (46) He reached the station *just as* the train was starting.
- (47) Gather roses *while* they bloom.
- (48) Smile *whenever* you can.
- (49) *While there is life there is hope.*
- (50) The ship sailed *before* the sun rose.
- (51) You may wait *till* the train arrives.
- (52) You cannot reap *until after* you sow.
- (53) Improve each shining moment *as* it flies.
- (54) He has been here *ever since* his brother came.
- (55) *Oft as* the morning dawns should gratitude ascend.
- (56) He was *just about* to start *when* I called him back.
- (57) She *has not been* here *since* you came.
- (58) *When* I look upon the tombs of the great every emotion of envy
dies within me.
- (59) Knowledge and timber should not be used much *till* they are
seasoned.
- (60) On Linden, *when* the sun was low,
All bloodless lay the untrodden snow.
- (61) Oh, what a tangled web we weave
When first we practise to deceive!
- (62) He sleeps *wherever* night overtakes him.
- (63) He builds a palace of ice *where* the torrents fall.
- (64) *Where there's a will there's a way.*
- (65) *As far as* the east is from the west, *so far* hath He removed
our transgressions from us.

(66) Man cannot act a more perfidious part *than to use* his utmost efforts to obtain confidence *in order to deceive*.

(67) No axe had levelled the giant progeny of the crowded grove in *which* the fantastic forms of withered limbs that had been blasted and riven by lightning contrasted strangely with the verdant freshness of a younger growth of branches.

(68) *Whilst* the authors of all these evils were idly and stupidly gazing on this *menacing* meteor, which blackened their horizon, it suddenly burst, and poured down the whole of its contents upon the plains of the Carnatic.

(69) God, by *whose* kindness we live, *whom* we worship, and *who* created all things, is eternal.

(70) I knew *why* he was sent there, *how* he is to manage, *when* he is to leave, *where* he is to go next, and *who* is to return home with him.

(71) *When* misfortune comes, *when* the first prospects fade away, and *when* on either hand a listless desert stretches away to the sky, *then* do we realize true friendship.

(72) The world and affairs have shown me *that* one half of history is loose conjecture, and much of the rest is the writer's opinion. — Wendell Phillips.

(73) On the bosom of a river,
Where the sun unloosed his quiver,
And the starlight streamed forever,
Sailed a vessel, *light* and *free*.

(74) Once again the Greeks arise,
As in their country's noblest hours.

667. Discuss the italicized words. Diagram and analyze the sentences, giving special attention to the clauses.

(1) The sun was now *resting* his huge *disk* upon the edge of the level ocean.

(2) The heavens declare the glory of God, and the firmament sheweth his handiwork.

(3) The *howling* of the wolf and the shrill *screaming* of the panther *were mingled* in nightly concert with the war-whoop of the savages.

(4) We *ought* not to *sacrifice* the sentiments of the soul to *gratify* the appetites of the body.

(5) You or he *is in fault*.

(6) *If* spring has no blossoms autumn will have no fruit.

(7) The man that neglects his business will soon be *without business*.

(8) He reads *whatever* is instructive.

(9) And all our knowledge is *ourselves to know*

(10) Milton has fine descriptions of morning, but not so many *as Shakespeare*.

(11) The woods are *lushed*, the waters rest,
The lake is dark and still.

(12) The king *to* Oxford sent a troop of horse;
The tories own no argument *but* force.

(13) The bounding steed you pompously bestride,
Shares with his lord the pleasure and the pride.

(14) I told you *who* he was.

(15) Aristotle tells *us that* a statue lies *buried* in a block of marble.

(16) Tell me not, in mournful numbers,
Life is *but* an empty dream.

(17) He looks *as if* tired.

(18) She is *as* hateful *as* ever.

(19) *Good morning, gentlemen.*

(20) Many *thanks for* your kindness.

(21) *As night to* stars, *woe lustre* gives to man.

(22) Favors *to* none, to all she smiles extends;
Oft she rejects, but never once offends.

(23) Maud Muller on a summer's day
Raked the meadows *sweet with* hay.

(24) For this he shares a felon's cell,
The fittest earthly *type of* hell.

(25) Liberty taught *Demosthenes eloquence*.

(26) The pole was six *feet long*.

(27) The snow was a *foot deep*.

(28) They painted the house *white*.

(29) She is *without a* home.

(30) He made the *axe sharp*.

(31) *It is possible that we are* wrong.

(32) Let *it* be understood *that* I will pursue this course no longer.

(33) The characteristic peculiarity of the *Pilgrim's Progress* is *that it* is the only work of the kind *that* possesses a strong human interest.

(34) Breathes *there* a man with soul so dead,
Who never to himself hath said,
This is my own, my native land?

(35) *Ill* fares the land, to *hastening* ill a prey,
Where wealth accumulates and men decay.

(36) Poets lose half the praise they would have *got*
Were it but known *what* they discreetly blot.

(37) I have observed *that* in all ages women have been more careful *than men to adorn* the part of the head *that* we generally call the *outside*.

(38) How long was *it before* the man came to ? *About three-quarters of an hour*.

(39) The end *why* God has ordained faith is *that* his free grace might be glorified.

(40) But the *Son of Man* hath not *where to lay* his head.

(41) *For what* shall *it profit* a man if he gain the whole world and lose his own soul ?

(42) The alarmed colonists believed *that* the yells of the savages mingled with every fitful gust of wind *that* issued from the interminable forests of the *West*.

(43) *From* beneath the flap of an enormous pocket of a soiled vest of embossed silk, heavily ornamented with tarnished silver-lace, *projected* an instrument, *which*, from *being seen* in such martial company, *might have been easily mistaken* for some mischievous implement of war.

(44) The fashion plates of the magazines bear no striking resemblance to the humanity that we meet in the street.

(45) A proper description of the habit of chewing tobacco would exhaust all the filthy adjectives of the language, and spoil the adjectives themselves *for* further use.

(46) Did *it ever* occur to you *what* you are, *what* you were made for, and *whither* you are going ?

(47) One of the greatest benefits *to be reaped* from great financial disasters is the *saving* of a large crop of young men.

(48) Let no man know by your dress *what* your business is.

(49) You will receive all sorts of the most excellent advice, but you must remember *that*, if you follow it, and it leads you into a profession *that* starves you, those that gave you the advice never feel *bound to give* you any money.

(50) You are *worth* to yourself *what* you are capable of enjoying ; you are *worth* to society the *happiness* you are capable of imparting.

(51) The Indian knows *where* his friends are buried.

(52) We know not *when* his life departed.

(53) I heard *why* he declined the office.

(54) *How* you obtained the money so soon *is* a mystery to me.

(55) *That* the man confessed his guilt *when* no evidence was found against him *surprised* the court.

(56) *When* he gave the fatal blow *is* a matter of uncertainty.

(57) *Where* he concealed the body *is* a subject *that* is much discussed.

(58) The decision was *that the prisoner was guilty*.

(59) The general opinion is that Morgan was murdered.

(60) It is *surprising* that you care so *little* for the improvement of your mind.

(61) The question, *Are we a nation ?* is now answered.

(62) Bursts the *moon* through glade and greenwood,
Soft the herald zephyrs play,
 And the *waving* birches sprinkle
 Sweetest incense on our way.

(63) I hear *that* the young prince is an excellent scholar.

(64) *To see* you here on such a day surprises me.

(65) Animals know *who* love them.

(66) We know *whom* we worship.

(67) Blessed is the man *whose* God is the Lord.

(68) He accepts *what* others reject.

(69) *After denying* the charge he withdrew in dignified displeasure.

(70) *After* the sun rose we continued our march.

(71) *Many* a despicable wretch lies under a marble monument *decorated* with a *flattering* epitaph.

(72) *When* Dante stood before the gates of Hell, he read over a portal's lofty arch the awful inscription : *All hope abandon, ye who enter here.*

668. Sentences from Pope's Essay on Criticism.

I.

'Tis with our judgments as our watches, none
 Go just alike, yet each believes his own.

II.

In poets as true genius is but rare,
 True taste as seldom is the critic's share.

III.

Some are bewildered in the maze of schools,
 And some made coxcombs nature meant but fools.

IV.

Some have at first for wits, then poets, passed,
 Turned critics next, and proved plain fools at last.

V.

Nature to all things fixed the limits fit,
 And wisely curbed proud man's pretending wit.

VI.

Where beams of warm imagination play,
 The memory's soft figures melt away.

VII.

Hear how learned Greece her useful rules indites,
When to repress, and when indulge our flights.

VIII.

Be Homer's works your study and delight,
Read them by day and meditate by night.

IX.

Of all the causes which conspire to blind
Man's erring judgment, and misguide the mind,
What the weak head with strongest bias rules,
Is pride, the never-failing vice of fools.

X.

Trust not yourself ; but your defects to know,
Make use of every friend — and every foe.

XI.

A little learning is a dangerous thing ;
Drink deep, or taste not the Pierian spring :
There shallow draughts intoxicate the brain,
And drinking largely sobers us again.

XII.

A perfect judge will read a work of wit
With the same spirit that its author writ.

XIII.

Whoever thinks a faultless piece to see,
Thinks what ne'er was, nor is, nor e'er shall be.

XIV.

Poets, like painters, thus, unskilled to trace
The naked nature and the living grace,
With gold and jewels cover every part,
And hide with ornaments their want of art.

XV.

But true expression, like the unchanging sun,
Clears and improves whate'er it shines upon ;
It gilds all objects, but it alters none.

XVI.

Some by old words to fame have made pretence,
Ancients in phrase, mere moderns in their sense,
Such labored nothings, in so strange a style,
Amaze the unlearned, and make the learned smile.

XVII.

Be not the first by whom the new are tried,
Nor yet the last to lay the old aside.

XVIII.

True ease in writing comes from art, not chance,
As those move easiest who have learned to dance.

XIX.

We think our fathers fools, so wise we grow ;
Our wiser sons, no doubt, will think us so.

XX.

Some valuing those of their own side or mind,
Still make themselves the measure of mankind :
Fondly we think we honor merit then,
When we but praise ourselves in other men.

XXI.

When first that sun too powerful beams displays,
It draws up vapors which obscure its rays.

XXII.

Be thou the first true merit to befriend ;
His praise is lost, who stays till all commend.

XXIII.

All seems infected that the infected spy,
As all looks yellow to the jaundiced eye.

669. Sentences from Pope's Essay on Man.

I.

Awake, my St. John ! leave all meaner things
To low ambition, and the pride of kings.

II.

Let us, since life can little more supply
Than just to look about us and to die,
Expatriate free o'er all this scene of man ;
A mighty maze ! but not without a plan :
A wild, where weeds and flowers promiscuous shoot,
Or garden, tempting with forbidden fruit.

III.

Say first, of God above, or man below,
What can we reason but from what we know ?

IV.

Of man, what see we but his station here,
From which to reason, or to which refer ?

V.

Through worlds unnumbered though the God be known,
'Tis ours to trace him only in our own.

VI.

He, who through vast immensity can pierce,
See worlds on worlds compose one universe,
Observe how system into system runs,
What other planets circle other suns,
What varied being peoples every star,
May tell why heaven has made us as we are.

VII.

When the proud steed shall know why man restrains
His fiery course, or drives him o'er the plain ;
When the dull ox, why now he breaks the clod,
Is now a victim, and now Egypt's God ;
Then shall man's pride and dulness comprehend
His actions', passions', being's, use and end ;
Why doing, suffering, checked, impelled ; and why
This hour a slave, the next a deity.

VIII.

Heaven from all creatures hides the book of Fate,
All but the page prescribed their present state :
From brutes what men, from men what spirits know ;
Or who could suffer being here below ?

IX.

But errs not nature from this gracious end,
From burning suns when livid deaths descend,
When earthquakes swallow, or when tempests sweep
Towns to one grave, whole nations to the deep?

X.

As much that end a constant course requires
Of showers and sunshine, as of man's desires;
As much eternal springs, and cloudless skies,
As men forever temperate, calm, and wise.

XI.

Shall he alone, whom rational we call,
Be pleased with nothing, if not blessed with all?

XII.

Why has not man a microscopic eye?
For this plain reason, man is not a fly.

XIII.

If nature thundered in his opening ears,
And stunned him with the music of the spheres,
How would he wish that heaven had left him still
The whispering zephyr, and the purling rill!

XIV.

Who finds not Providence all good and wise,
Alike in what it gives, and what denies?

XV.

And, if each system in gradation roll,
Alike essential to the amazing whole;
The least confusion but in one, not all
That system only, but the whole must fall.

XVI.

All are but parts of one stupendous whole,
Whose body nature is, and God the soul.

XVII.

Know then thyself, presume not God to scan;
The proper study of mankind is Man.

XVIII.

Could he whose rules the rapid comet bind,
Describe, or fix one movement of his mind ?

XIX.

Two principles in human nature reign —
Self-love to urge, and reason to restrain ;
Nor this a good, nor that a bad, we call ;
Each works its end, to move or govern all ;
And, to their proper operation, still
Ascribe all good ; to their improper, ill.

XX.

Self-love, the spring of motion, acts the soul ;
Reason's comparing balance rules the whole.

XXI.

Modes of self-love the passions we may call ;
'Tis real good, or seeming, moves them all.

XXII.

As fruits ungrateful to the planter's care,
On savage stalks inserted, learn to bear,
The surest virtues thus from passions shoot,
Wild nature's vigor working at their root.

XXIII.

Vice is a monster of so frightful mien,
As, to be hated, needs but to be seen ;
Yet seen too oft ; familiar with her face,
We first endure, then pity, then embrace.

670. Selections from Cary's Dante's Inferno.

I.

In the midway of this our mortal life,
I found me in a gloomy wood, astray
Gone from the path direct : and e'en to tell
It were no easy task, how savage wild
That forest, how robust and rough its growth,
Which to remember only, my dismay
Renews, in bitterness not far from death. — *Line 1, canto 1.*

II.

Yet to discourse of what there good befell,
All else will I relate discover'd there.

— *Line 8.*

III.

How first I enter'd it I scarce can say,
Such sleepy dulness in that instant weigh'd
My senses down, when the true path I left,
But when a mountain's foot I reach'd, where clos'd
The valley, that had pierced my heart with dread,
I look'd aloft, and saw his shoulders broad
Already vested with that planet's beam,
Who leads all wanderers safe through every way. — *Line 10.*

IV.

Those things alone
Are to be fear'd, whence evil may proceed ;
None else, for none are terrible beside. — *Line 87, canto 2.*

V.

As florets, by the frosty air of night
Bent down and clos'd, when day has blanch'd their leaves,
Rise all unfolded on their spiry stems ;
So was my fainting vigor new restor'd,
And to my heart such kindly courage ran,
That I as one undaunted soon replied. — *Line 127.*

VI.

Straightway in silence fell the shaggy cheeks
Of him, the boatman o'er the livid lake,
Around whose eyes glar'd wheeling flames. — *Line 91, canto 3.*

VII.

One still another following, till the bough
Strews all its honors on the earth beneath ;
E'en in like manner Adam's evil brood
Cast themselves one by one down from the shore,
Each at a beck, as falcon at his call. — *Line 105.*

VIII.

This said, the gloomy region trembling shook
So terribly, that yet with clammy dews
Fear chills my brow. — *Line 121.*

IX.

Broke the deep slumber in my brain a crash
Of heavy thunder, that I shook myself,
As one by main force rous'd.

— *Line 1, canto 4.*

X.

We, while he spake, ceas'd not our onward road,
Still passing through the wood ; for so I name
Those spirits thick beset.

— *Line 61.*

XI.

So I beheld united the bright school
Of him, the monarch of sublimest song,
That o'er the others like an eagle soars.

— *Line 89.*

XII.

Another way
My sage guide leads me, from that air serene,
Into a climate ever vex'd with storms :
And to a part I come where no light shines.

— *Line 145.*

XIII.

There Minos stands
Grinning with ghastly feature : he, of all
Who enter, strict examining the crimes,
Gives sentence, and dismisses them beneath,
According as he foldeth him around :
For when before him comes the ill-fated soul,
It all confesses ; and that judge severe
Of sins, considering what place in hell
Suits the transgression, with his tail so oft
Himself encircles, as degrees beneath
He dooms it to descend.

— *Line 4, canto 5.*

XIV.

As in large troops
And multitudinous, when winter reigns,
The starlings on their wings are borne abroad,
So bears the tyrannous gust those evil souls.

— *Line 40.*

XV.

Soon as the wind
Sway'd them toward us, I thus fram'd my speech :
"O wearied spirits ! come, and hold discourse
With us, if by none else restrain'd."

— *Line 77.*

XVI.

As doves

By fond desire invited, on wide wings
 And firm, to their sweet nests returning home,
 Cleave the air, wafted by their will along ;
 Thus issu'd from that troop, where Dido ranks,
 They through the ill air speeding ; with such force
 My cry prevail'd by strong affection urg'd. — *Line 80.*

XVII.

“O gracious creature and benign ! who go'st
 Visiting, through this element obscure,
 Us, who the world with bloody stain imbrud ;
 If, for a friend, the King of all, we own'd,
 Our pray'r to him should for thy peace arise,
 Since thou hast pity on our evil plight.” — *Line 87.*

XVIII.

“Love, that in gentle heart is quickly learnt,
 Entangled him by that fair form, from me
 Ta'en in such cruel sort as grieves me still.” — *Line 99.*

XIX.

No greater grief than to remember days
 Of joy, when mis'ry is at hand ! — *Line 118.*

XX.

We, o'er the shades thrown prostrate by the brunt
 Of the heavy tempest passing, set our feet
 Upon their emptiness, that substance seem'd.
 — *Line 33, canto 6.*

XXI.

Consult thy knowledge ; that decides
 That, as each thing to more perfection grows,
 It feels more sensibly both good and pain. — *Line 108.*

XXII.

So 'tis will'd

On high, there where the great archangel pour'd
 Heav'n's vengeance on the first adulterer proud.
 — *Line 10, canto 7.*

XXIII.

Thus we, descending to the fourth steep ledge,
Gain'd on the dismal shore, that all the woe
Hems in of all the universe.

— *Line 16.*

XXIV.

Not all the gold that is beneath the moon,
Or ever hath been, of these toil-worn souls
Might purchase rest for one.

— *Line 65.*

XXV.

My theme pursuing, I relate that ere
We reach'd the lofty turret's base, our eyes
Its height ascended, where two cressets hung
We mark'd, and from afar another light
Return the signal, so remote that scarce
The eye could catch its beam.

— *Line 1, canto 8.*

XXVI.

There above
How many now hold themselves mighty kings
Who here like swine shall wallow in the mire,
Leaving behind them horrible dispraise!

— *Line 47.*

XXVII.

The hue, which coward dread on my pale cheeks
Imprinted, when I saw my guide turn back,
Chas'd that from his which newly they had worn,
And inwardly restrain'd it.

— *Line 1, canto 9.*

XXVIII.

As frogs
Before their foe the serpent through the wave,
Ply swiftly all, till at the ground each one
Lies on a heap; more than a thousand spirits
Destroy'd, so saw I fleeing before one
Who pass'd with unwet feet the Stygian sound.

— *Line 75.*

XXIX.

Upon the utmost verge of a high bank,
By craggy rocks environ'd round, we came,
Where woes beneath more cruel yet were stow'd:
And here to shun the horrible excess

Of fetid exhalation, upward cast
 From the profound abyss, behind the lid
 Of a great monument we stood retir'd,
 Whereon this scroll I mark'd: "I have in charge
 Pope Anastasius, whom Photinus drew
 From the right path."

— *Line 1, canto 11.*

XXX.

The place where to descend the precipice
 We came, was rough as Alp, and on its verge
 Such object lay, as every eye would shun.

— *Line 1, canto 12.*

XXXI.

Ere farther thou proceed, know thou art now
 I' the second round, and shalt be, till thou come
 Upon the horrid sand: look therefore well
 Around thee, and such things thou shalt behold,
 As would my speech discredit.

— *Line 19, canto 13.*

XXXII.

Men once were we, that now are rooted here.

— *Line 38.*

XXXIII.

My soul, disdainful and disgusted, sought
 Refuge in death from scorn, and I became,
 Just as I was, unjust toward myself.

— *Line 72.*

XXXIV.

And of you,
 If any to the world indeed return
 Clear he from wrong my memory, that lies
 Yet prostrate under envy's cruel blow.

— *Line 77.*

XXXV.

When departs
 The fierce soul from the body, by itself
 Thence torn asunder to the seventh gulf
 By Minos doom'd, into the wood it falls,
 No place assigned, but wheresoever chance
 Hurls it, there sprouting, as a grain of spelt,
 It rises to a sapling, growing thence
 A savage plant.

— *Line 96.*

XXXVI.

Attentive yet to listen to the trunk
 We stood, expecting farther speech, when us
 A noise surpris'd, as when a man perceives
 The wild boar and the hunt approach his place
 Of station'd watch, who of the beasts and boughs
 Loud rustling round him hears. — *Line 112.*

XXXVII.

Soon as the charity of native land
 Wrought in my bosom, I the scatter'd leaves
 Collected, and to him restor'd, who now
 Was hoarse with utt'rance. — *Line 1, canto 14.*

XXXVIII.

To the limit thence
 We came, which from the third the second round
 Divides, and where of justice is display'd
 Contrivance horrible. — *Line 4.*

XXXIX.

Things then first seen
 Clearlier to manifest, I tell how next
 A plain we reach'd, that from its sterile bed
 Each plant repell'd. — *Line 7.*

XL.

The mournful wood waves round
 Its garland on all sides, as round the wood
 Spreads the sad foss. — *Line 10.*

XLI.

Of naked spirits many a flock I saw,
 All weeping piteously, to different laws
 Subjected. — *Line 18.*

XLII.

O'er all the sand fell slowly wafting down
 Dilated flakes of fire, as flakes of snow
 On Alpine summit, when the wind is hush'd. — *Line 25.*

XLIII.

Unceasing was the play of wretched hands,
 Now this, now that way glancing, to shake off
 The heat, still falling fresh. — *Line 37.*

XLIV.

Straight he himself, who was aware I ask'd
My guide of him, exclaim'd: "Such as I was
When living, dead such now I am."

— *Line 46*

XLV.

This of the seven kings was one,
Who girt the Theban walls with siege, and held,
As still he seems to hold, God in disdain,
And sets His high omnipotence at naught.

— *Line 64.*

XLVI.

Silently on we pass'd
To where there gushes from the forests' bound
A little brook, whose crimson'd wave yet lifts
My hair with horror.

— *Line 72.*

XLVII.

Of all that I have shown thee, since that gate
We enter'd first, whose threshold is to none
Denied, naught else so worthy of regard,
As is this river, has thine eye discern'd,
O'er which the flaming volley all is quench'd.

— *Line 81.*

XLVIII.

So spake my guide; and I him thence besought,
That having giv'n me appetite to know,
The food he too would give, that hunger crav'd.

— *Line 86.*

XLIX.

A mountain rises there,
Call'd Ida, joyous once with leaves and streams,
Deserted now like a forbidden thing.

— *Line 92.*

L.

Lethe thou shalt see,
But not within this hollow, in the place,
Whither to lave themselves the spirits go,
Whose blame hath been by penitence remov'd.

— *Line 131*

LI.

One of the solid margins bears us now
Envelop'd in the mist, that from the stream
Arising, hovers o'er, and saves from fire
Both piers and water.

— *Line 1, canto 15.*

LII.

They each one ey'd us, as at eventide
One eyes another under a new moon,
And toward us sharpen'd their sight as keen
As an old tailor at his needle's eye.

— *Line 17.*

LIII.

"O son!" said he, "whoever of this throng
One instant stops, lies then a hundred years,
No fan to ventilate him, when the fire
Smites sorest."

— *Line 37.*

LIV.

This only would I have thee clearly note:
That so my conscience have no plea against me;
Do fortune as she list, I stand prepar'd.

— *Line 101.*

LV.

Thus alone
Yet forward on th' extremity I pac'd
Of that seventh circle, where the mournful tribe
Were seated.

— *Line 41, canto 17.*

LVI.

And when amongst them looking round I came,
A yellow purse I saw with azure wrought,
That wore a lion's countenance and port.

— *Line 56.*

LVII.

Pursuing thus our solitary way
Among the crags and splinters of the rock,
Sped not our feet without the help of hands.

— *Line 17.*

LVIII.

So were mine eyes inebriate with view
Of the vast multitude, whom various wounds
Disfigur'd, that they longed to stay and weep.

— *Line 1, canto 29.*

LIX.

But pass we on, nor waste
Our words ; for so each language is to him,
As his to others, understood by none. — *Line 72, canto 31.*

LX.

O'er better waves to speed her rapid course
The light bark of my genius lifts the sail,
Well pleas'd to leave so cruel sea behind ;
And of that second region will I sing,
In which the human spirit from sinful blot
Is purg'd, and for ascent to Heaven prepares.
— *Line 1, canto 1, Purgatorio.*

LXI.

The dawn had chas'd the matin hour of prime,
Which fled before it, so that from afar
I spy'd the trembling of the ocean stream. — *Line 114.*

LXII.

My sins were horrible ; but so wide arms
Hath goodness infinite, that it receives
All who turn to it. — *Line 118, canto 3.*

LXIII.

O power divine !
If thou to me of thine impart so much,
That of that happy realm the shadow'd form
Trac'd in my thoughts I may set forth to view,
Thou shalt behold me of thy favor'd tree
Come to the foot, and crown myself with leaves.
— *Line 20, canto 1, Paradiso.*

LXIV.

Much more than vainly doth he loose from shore,
Since he returns not such as he set forth,
Who fishes for the truth and wanteth skill.
— *Line 116, canto 13.*

LXV.

Let not the people be too swift to judge,
As one who reckons on the blades in field,
Or ere the crop be ripe. For I have seen
The thorn frown rudely all the winter long

And after bear the rose upon its top ;
 And bark, that all the way across the sea
 Ran straight and speedy, perish at the last,
 E'en in the haven's mouth.

— *Line 126.*

LXVI.

That all the world should have been turn'd
 To Christian, and no miracle been wrought,
 Would in itself be such a miracle,
 The rest were not an hundredth part so great.

— *Line 104, canto 24.*

671. Review of Sentences and Elements.

(1) Discuss the value of Analysis. Of Diagrams.

Outline of Elements	{	As to Form	{ Simple (a) Compound (b) Complex (c)
		As to Use	{ Adjective (d) Substantive (e) Adverbial (f)
		As to Basis	{ First Class (g), word. Second Class (h), phrase. Third Class (i), clause.

(2) Define and illustrate, — (a), (b), (c), (d), (e), (f), (g), (h), (i).

(3) Define and illustrate: —

adg, adh, adi; bdg, bdh, bdi; cdg, cdh, cdi.
age, aeh, aei; beg, beh, bei; ceg, ceh, cei.
afg, afh, afi; bfg, bfh, bfi; cfg, cfh, cfi.

(4) Referring to article 75, illustrate: —

ad, ae, af, ag;
bd, be, bf, bg;
cd, ce, cf, cg.

(5) Referring to articles 93 and 94, illustrate: —

ad, bd, cd;
ae, be, ce;
af, bf, cf.

PREFACE TO THE FIRST THOUSAND.

672. Apology.—The only apology the author of this book has for adding another to the long list of books having for their object the Grammar of the English Sentence is that fifteen years spent in studying the subject, and in teaching it to the pupils of every grade of advancement, from the beginning classes of the country school to the college student of logic, from six to twelve months in the year, with from one to four classes a day, and one to three hundred in a class, *ought* to result in an experience useful to the student and the teacher of grammar. With the hope that such a result may be realized this work has been prepared.

673. Claim of the Book.—It is not put forth wholly as a product of originality. Not much of the matter itself is new; and this is possibly its greatest merit. Indeed, if the book contains *one new thing*, that one should be accepted most reluctantly by the student.

But while the writer claims, as the best recommendation of his book, that much of its thought has been in substance expressed by great authors and teachers, he claims also to have accumulated from a variety of sources, modified, and arranged what, it is hoped, is the most valuable text-book for advanced students, high schools, normal schools, and colleges that has yet been published on this subject.

The author wishes to emphasize what is claimed by some of the greatest educators and denied by others—that *English grammar is a science and should be taught as such*. English has been styled the “*grammarless tongue*,” and justly perhaps, if viewed in the light of other languages.

If grammar means *inflection only*, our language is without a grammar; but if it is founded upon the idea that the thought expressed by a sentence determines, and is determined by, the relative positions of its parts, then our language can boast of a grammar excelled by none.

674. Objection to Grammar.—It has been urged against the study of grammar that it never produces good speakers and writers. This is partly true. Language must precede grammar, just as any other art must precede its corresponding science; but without the science the art would remain imperfect. It is mostly by imitation that the child gets his first lessons in language, and his only books are his parents, playmates, and teachers. By imitation alone, with proper surroundings, he may acquire the most elegant and most forcible style; but, *with more probable surroundings*, he will acquire by imitation also the most objectionable brogue, barbarism, or slang.

675. How Language is Learned.—If our habits of language were formed by *imitation only*, we would be as helpless as the blank page that receives with equal facility the most faultless expression and the grossest vulgarism. By imitation we might become good speakers and writers, and more easily than in any other way if we could see and hear only the best of language. But such opportunities do not exist. Even in the finest fields of literature may be found such a mixture of the tares and the wheat as will require the discriminating analysis of the careful student to separate them.

A little thought will make it clear that to acquire correct language we must perform *two* processes, which may be called *acception* and *rejection*—we must learn to imitate the language of our best speakers and writers; this any one can do; and then we must cast away from it its imperfections; this can be done only by the thoughtful

student of language, and after he has fully realized that in every *word* there is an *idea*, and in every *sentence* a *thought*.

676. Other Use of Grammar. — But it must not be understood that its practical utility as a means of acquiring language is the *only*, or even the *greatest*, benefit to be derived from grammatical study. As a mental drill in logical thinking, it is unexcelled. Nothing is more evident than that carelessness in expression indicates carelessness in thought. Careless thinking can be avoided only by carefully analyzing thought itself. This can be done only by analyzing the language in which it is expressed. No power of the human mind is superior to that of analysis, and one that can analyze the English sentence is well prepared to analyze anything else.

“Briefly,” says Leslie Stephen, “to teach a child to speak is to educate it, to prepare it for association with others, to lay it open to all manner of influences, to start it with a mass of knowledge already elaborately organized, to teach it methods of thinking and imagining, to insinuate into its mind philosophical and religious principles, and to inoculate it with innumerable associations, which must be important elements in the development of its character.”

677. Diagrams. — The system of diagramming used in this book the author does not claim as his own. It was originated by Professor W. F. L. Sanders, and he is certainly entitled to the credit of having originated the most ingenious, the most attractive, the most complete, and yet the simplest of all the methods of diagramming. The only change the author has made in Mr. Sanders's system is in the arrangement of the *infinitive* and its *objective subject*.

It has been somewhat common for a certain class of

educators to condemn diagramming altogether, their only reasons being, that the pupil must know how to diagram a sentence before he can do it, and if he knows how, there is no use of his doing it. The reader can see how foolish such talk is when he thinks of applying it to the demonstration of propositions in geometry, to the solutions of problems in arithmetic and algebra, and indeed to every attempt to exhibit to the eye what has been conceived by the mind. It is a well-known psychological principle that the mind is more deeply and more clearly impressed when reached through any two of the senses than when reached through either of them. To diagram a sentence is to exhibit to the eye the relations of its parts. This is the most satisfactory way for a teacher to give a class a correct understanding of a sentence or to correct their misunderstandings of it. There is no other branch of study in which we do not make use of diagrams, and there is no branch of study in which diagrams can be used to better advantage than in English grammar; and the teacher that adopts and thoroughly understands any good method of diagramming will find it a source of interest and enthusiasm in his class not to be aroused in any other way. Here President Bascom speaks to the point, "There is an effort constantly made to present all the difficult matter of science through diagrams, models, experiments, and specimens; since anything offered to the eye is thought of more avail than the most comprehensive description."

678. Analysis. — This, so far as the author knows, is the only complete analysis of the sentence ever given, and it was originated by President Alfred Holbrook. Every element must be described as to structure, as to use, and as to base; this makes very careful and accurate thinking indispensable.

679. Syntax. — The author feels confident that teachers will approve of the method of syntax contained in this book. By it the pupil is compelled to use his knowledge of grammatical principles and also his judgment in applying them.

680. Selections. — The selections used have been taken from more than a hundred grammars, and many of the most prominent works of literature. Two objects have been kept in view: *first*, to collect such sentences as will best illustrate the greatest possible variety of constructions; *second*, to make selections that will be attractive to the pupil, so that while he is learning the grammar of the language he may also learn to appreciate the beauty of its literature.

If this book shall aid some of those it may reach in acquiring a careful, thoughtful discrimination, and shall create in them an interest for those higher thought studies to which grammar is so closely allied, it will then have accomplished its work.

JONATHAN RIGDON.

CENTRAL NORMAL COLLEGE, August 6, 1890.

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